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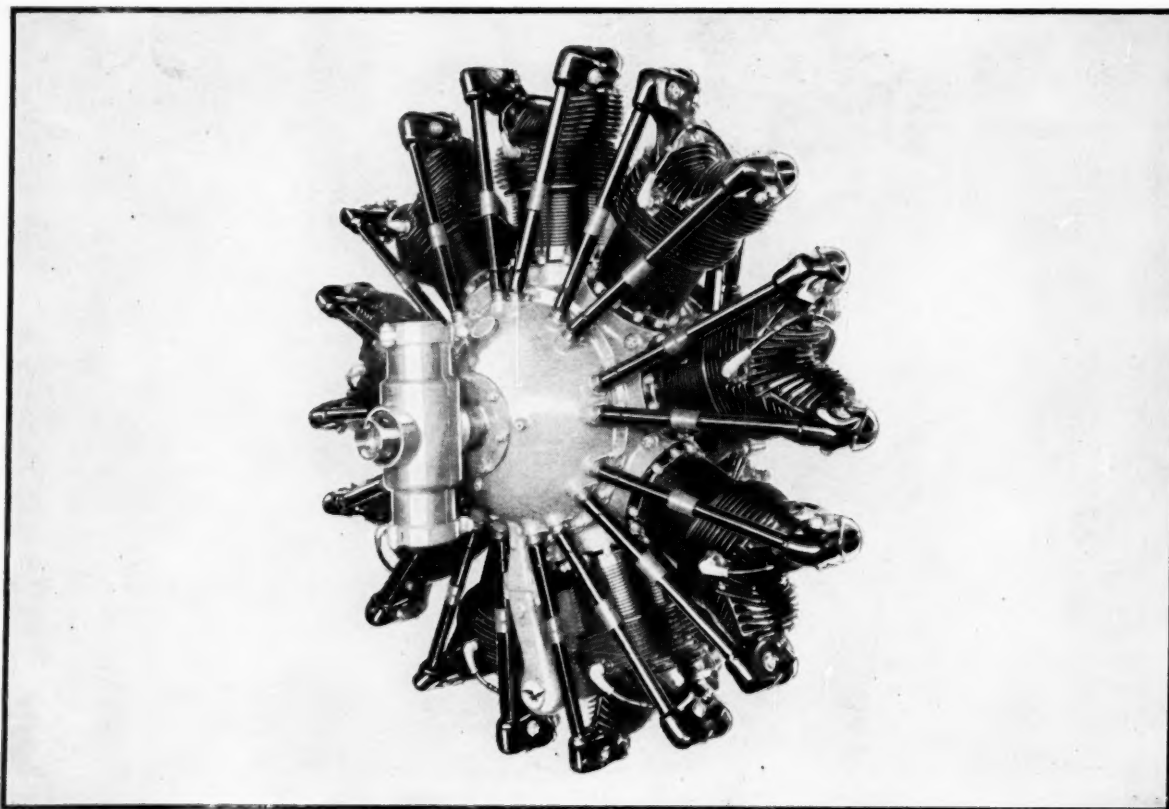
# THE MARINE CORPS GAZETTE



MAY  
1931

Published Quarterly  
by the  
MARINE CORPS ASSOCIATION

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Headquarters, Marine Corps, Washington, D. C.

**OBJECT OF ASSOCIATION**—"The Association is formed to disseminate knowledge of the military art and science among its members; to provide for the improvement of their professional attainments; to foster the spirit and preserve the traditions of the United States Marine Corps; and to increase the efficiency of its members."—Section 2, Article 1, of the Constitution.

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**CONTRIBUTIONS**—The GAZETTE desires articles on any subject of interest to the Marine Corps. Articles will be paid for at the GAZETTE'S authorized rates. Non-members of the Association as well as members may submit articles. In accepting articles for publication, the GAZETTE reserves the right to have such articles revised or rearranged, where necessary.

All communications for the Marine Corps Association and THE MARINE CORPS GAZETTE should be addressed to the Secretary-Treasurer, Marine Corps Association, Headquarters, U. S. Marine Corps, Washington, and check made payable to the same.



# The Marine Corps Gazette

COLONEL LOUIS MCC. LITTLE, EDITOR

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Published Quarterly By

## The Marine Corps Association

Editorial Office: Headquarters,

U. S. Marine Corps, Navy Building, 18th and B Streets  
Washington, D. C.

Business Office, Evans Building, Washington, D. C.

Printed at 717 Sixth Street N.W., Washington, D. C.

Annual Subscription, \$2.00

Entered as second-class matter, March 27, 1929, at the Post Office, Washington, D. C., under the Act of March 3, 1879. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized November 23, 1918.



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# THE MARINE CORPS GAZETTE

Vol. XVI.

MAY, 1931

No. 1

## They Know How to Die

By COLONEL FRANK E. EVANS, U. S. Marine Corps.

THE Foreign Legion of France, the world's most famous and glamorous body of fighting men, celebrates its centenary this year. None surpass it in glorious traditions, in feats of war, in impregnable loyalty to its officers and its flag, in professional skill or high elan, yet no corps d'elite has suffered so much at the hands of the writers of sensational fiction or of inept motion picture directors. The world has learned to look upon the Foreign Legion as the last refuge of hunted criminals, a sordid sanctuary for broken men, the ultimate goal of the world's outcasts; and picture it as officered, in the main, by Prussian sergeants, inhuman, despotic, blue-jowled and burly brutes. German propagandists, long alarmed by the unbroken and increasing exodus of German youth to the Legion's legendary colors, have heightened the picture by branding all legionnaires as vagabonds or bandits. To a minor degree, but adding materially to the widespread misconception of this gallant corps of adventurous spirits, the uninitiated have long confused the Foreign Legion with the Battalions d'Afrique, those harsh penal battalions to which the dregs of the French African Army, and hardened criminals from continental France, are drafted by Madame La Republique to remove their menace from society. The Legion, saddened and outraged by this, shrugs its shoulders and carries on.

The true Legion, a body of 24,000 men of a score of nationalities, serving an alien flag for a pittance in France's exotic colonial possessions, may best be portrayed in the historic phrases of two illustrious generals under whom the Legion served as the spearhead of their columns. It was General de Negrier, most beloved of its chiefs, who coined the tribute dearest to the hearts of the bronzed legionnaires, when he said: "In the other corps they may conquer; in the Legion they know how to die!" It was he who sent them into action in Indo China with the fiery benison: "You, legionnaires, you are soldiers to die, and I send you where they kill!"

Unforgettable was the homage paid by General Duchesne in Madagascar: "When a soldier of France enters the hospital it is to be repatriated; a native soldier, to be nursed back to health; a legionnaire, to die!" Andre Maurois, writing of the Legion at the end of the Moroccan campaign five years ago, said: "It is far more than a military organization; it is an institution!"

You may see these tributes on the squad rooms of the Legion's casernes, where its recruits absorb the matchless spirit that spurs the Legion on in its emulation of the role of the Roman Legion, that of conqueror and builder in foreign lands.

One asks, naturally enough, what are the sources of the flaming spirit that welds alien adventurers together, whose flag does not bear the magic word "Patrie" as in France's line regiments, and who, if they serve in its lowest ranks for an enlistment of five years, receive the total pay of \$18.25 in that long period?

That question may be answered in two ways, neither complete, however, without the other. First, a knowledge of the Legion's amazing history and glamorous traditions. Second, a visit to the Legion itself in the cradle of the Legion. The first one may find in the writings of talented soldiers who have served in the Legion, fighting men like Major Zinovi Pechkoff, foster son of Maxim Gorky; and Captain Aage, Prince of the Royal House of Denmark, now serving with the Legion in Morocco, and

THE accompanying article, **THEY KNOW HOW TO DIE**, is the first of a series of three on the Foreign Legion of France which, this year, celebrates its centenary. Designed to give a general picture of this famous corps of fighting men, the following articles will enter more into matters of purely professional interest: Recruiting, pay, organization and strength, retirement privileges, training, marches, its famous band, under canvas, history, discipline, equipment and the sources of its officer material. With its strength that of the authorized strength of the Marine Corps, its service in many lands, its almost incessant expeditionary activities, its fine spirit, there is much that should be of interest to the officers and men of the Marine Corps. France draws on its army for expeditionary duties, as the United States draws on the Marine Corps for its, and since its foundation the Foreign Legion has been the spearhead of France's armed forces.

There is much that the Marine Corps can learn from this sister service in organization, training and equipment. Its Salle d'Honneur, unique in all the military world, is an incomparable shrine at which recruits imbibe the flaming spirit of their corps, and its veterans renew theirs. It may not be too late for the Marine Corps to form its own Hall of Honor, rich in traditions.

Since the beginning of the centenary exercises France has honored anew its Foreign Legion, by an increase in its effective strength, and by the promotion of Colonel Rollet to the grade of general, the first officer of that rank in the Legion.

but recently cited for gallantry; and in the thin-paged official histories of the Legion. The second, more inaccessible, but well worth the effort, one may find at the mother garrison city of the Foreign Legion, Sidi-del-Abbes, fifty miles to the south of Oran in Algeria. The Legion built its cradle there in 1844, with massive walls, broad boulevards and great barracks, and there its centenary will be celebrated.

It matters little whether you visit the Legion steeped in its glamour, or wrapped in the cloak of prejudice. It is





A Battalion of the Foreign Legion Leaving Its Barracks in North Africa for Service in Tonkin.

certain that you will leave it with regret, and with the clear conviction that, regardless of the past history of its bronzed men, you have seen a magnificent, upstanding corps of super-soldiers.

In the heart of this soldier town is the Place d'Horloge. Under the striped awnings of the Grand Cafe du Commerce is a splendid coign of vantage. Camions thunder through the Place, bound for Oran on the North, Mascara on the east, Saida on the south and Tlemcen on the west. Directly across is the square pavillion of the Cercle Militaire, its sloping thatched roof set among plants and flowers and towering palms. Three blocks to the south on the Boulevard de la Republique are the great gray casernes of the First Regiment of the Foreign Legion.

It is late afternoon in June and the legionnaires are on their way to taste the restricted pleasures of Sidi-del-Abbes. On they come, under the giant plane trees with a stride that is not the quick, light pace of the line regiment, but the slower, longer, ground-devouring stride of the Legion. Alert men of magnificent physique, yet lithe and sinewy, hard-bitten, in the pink of physical condition that the Legion's stern mission exacts. You watch their faces as they file past, alert for traces of the sodden, brutalized type, but you will not see it outside of the Legion's prisons, for the Legion makes short shrift of men who cannot meet its stern demands on the march or in the field, who cannot face its rigidly firm discipline and its intensive training. The faces are clear with health or deeply bronzed. Occasionally you see a huge and bearded giant, many with moustaches, but the greater part are in their twenties, clean-shaven, lean-jawed.

The immobility of their faces, their somber eyes, carry a certain serene, impassive calm that strikes you forcibly. Yet, to those who know the Legion, this outward calm is but a part of the imprint that the Legion stamps on its alien adventurers. Underneath are ardent fires, for the legionnaire, unsurpassed in the field, is riotous on holidays and pay days in garrison. So well established is this tradition of the Legion that only legionnaires furnish the night patrols on their pay days. The legionnaire, as sincere

a drinker as ever wore uniform, will brook no arrest or curb except from his own corps when the "divine" pinard or Spanish absinthe has once assumed command.

On their close-cropped heads are the historic red and blue-black kepis that the Legion scorns to put aside in Africa for the sun helmet of the line troops, and above the black visor is the insignia of the Legion, a seven-branched flaming grenade. On the collars of the khaki tunics, edged with green, is a tab bearing the regimental figure. Tunics and breeches are excellently cut, of a uniform shade, without a wrinkle, and with just the proper degree of starching, for the legionnaire is his own laundryman. Olive green wrap puttees encase the well-muscled legs, and the rasp of the oncoming hob-nailed black shoes is waking the echoes of the sleepy garrison town.

Kepis and the famous woolen sash of the Legion, a deep navy blue, rob the khaki of its monotony as seen with our troops. The twelve feet of the sash, an admirable preventative of stomach trouble in tropical countries, is woven broadly and evenly, and about it is a fair leather bucklet belt. Their leathers glow with the richness of old mahogany, and the tunic buttons gleam like gold. Literally hundreds pass by but there is not one who is not immaculate enough to pass the muster of the most exacting martinet, and slovenliness in dress is a cardinal sin in the Legion.

Officers of the Legion and their inseparable allies, the crimson-cloaked Spahis, are seated at the little iron tables of the cafe, tunics colorful with war ribbons. As each legionnaire passes, his head and eyes turn searchingly. The right hand snaps up, palm outwards, to the brim of the kepi, and cuts away with a wholly indescribable jaunty sweep. There is nothing mechanical in the salute for the legionnaire invests it with the same ceremony as though he were saluting a Marshal of France. His love for what the French term "chic" is in that dramatic salute, in his characteristic stride, in the reversed diagonal fold that ends his blue sash on the right, in everything that he does. Even his gray-white fatigue uniform has a broad belt at its back that gives it a jaunty aspect. And when a legionnaire sallies forth on liberty it is as though an unseen herald preceded him, crying: "Gangway! Here comes the Legion!"

Marine officers hug to their hearts the memory of a crack ship's detachment, and grow lyric in praise of it. In Sidi-del-Abbes, as the Legion marches by, the officer of any nationality would be moved to murmur: "Thank God, here are soldiers! The soldiers of my fondest dreams! And hundreds of them!"

To the uninitiated there has been little sensation of a passing promenade of many and diverse nationalities in a common uniform. Yet the officers of the Legion will point out blue-eyed German boys, olive-skinned Latins, flaxen-haired giants from Russia, hawk-nosed legionnaires from the Scandinavian Peninsula, Belgians, Swiss, a bearded giant with the Medaille Militaire from Turkey and his swarthy companion as a Brazilian. The first impression persists and then it flashes on you that it is the Legion that has put its stamp, and wrought its inescapable

mould, on these impassive men of twenty-odd nationalities. You are getting closer to the secrets of the Foreign Legion.

Follow this colorful tide of khaki until this river of fighting men breaks into many restless eddies at the Place Carnot, a hundred yards distant, filling the cafes and the one cinema that flank it, and you will hear there all the languages of Europe, with the guttural German predominating.

It was Lieutenant Colonel Nicolas who, in the absence of the justly famed and beloved Colonel Rollet, enlightened the writer on certain puzzling and fascinating phases of the Foreign Legion. He looked up with imperious blue-gray eyes from a desk piled with reports, long fingers twirling the points of his gray-tipped moustache, ruddy of cheek, hair silver-frosted at the temples. His voice was brisk, resonant and friendly.

"The Legion of today, how does it compare with the old Legion? There is no Old Legion, my friend, and no New Legion. There is only the Foreign Legion. Ah, yes, the Legion was wiped out in France, but it is the same Legion." The shoulders lifted in expressive shrug. "There is little difference, if any." He tapped the pile of reports and smiled quizzically. "Today we have what you call a 'tranquil sector,' just small affairs, in eight localities, mostly on the Moroccan-Algerian border. Two days ago a battalion returned from Tonkin after two years' duty, and it brought back some wounded. Tomorrow you will see a detachment leaving for the Saharan posts, and two days later one for Morocco. Yes, the Legion goes on!"

Then he spoke, with a Frenchman's tact, but with feeling, of his fear that in the United States there had grown a distorted, unfavorable view of the Foreign Legion if the tales of sensational films that had come to Sidi-del-Abbes were true. Again the light shrug, a quick smile, and out-thrown hands. "But the Legion goes on!"

I spoke of the curious impression I had gained the day before when a recruit company, returning from a twenty-five kilometer march to the south, had passed at route step, singing lustily a German marching song. Close to the great grilled gates of the Legion a bugle sounded "attention!" In perfect column it was swinging through the gates, under the tri-color of France, drums and bugles sounding out that rollicking marching refrain of the Legion, "Tiens! Tiens! t'auras du boudin!"

"The Germans in the Legion? Ah, yes. Fully sixty per cent, even more than before the war. They are excellent soldiers of a fine discipline, eager for promotion. They make splendid soldiers, but when we promote them to sergeants we must have care for the German is prone to be too dictatorial, too arrogant, to handle well the men of so many differing nationalities. Then there are the Russians, of a stolidity in battle, disciplined. They are often good corporals, but sergeants?" Again the expressive shrug of the shoulders. "The Russian will follow his officers anywhere, but give him command, responsibility for others, and he hesitates and becomes confused."

"How does the Legion inculcate its remarkably high spirit among its potpourri of more than a score of nationalities; and how, aside from their soldierly qualities, does



A Legion Canteen

it regard the heavy predominance of the Germans, the traditional enemies of France?"

The answer to the latter poignantly interesting problem was simple and direct. "They are not loyal to France, my friend, but they are loyal to the Legion! That is all that we could ask."

That loyalty is certain, for Algeria, Morocco, Syria and Indo China have borne staunch witness to it since the Armistice. It is equally certain that the German legionnaires do not love France, but the Legion has become their provisional government, and their inherited antipathy does not impair their flaming spirit as legionnaires. In the Legion a soldier of any of France's allies may, on reenlistment at the end of five years' service, become a naturalized Frenchman, and many do. Those whose nations were allied against France, however, must serve ten years to win the privilege. Many old German legionnaires to whom the Fatherland has become a legend, seek that privilege. As one officer aptly expressed it: "At the end of one reenlistment he is not a Frenchman but he is no longer a German. At the end of ten years he is on his way to become the father of good French lads."

Talks with other officers of the Legion and with a sergeant of American birth not only confirmed the estimate of Lieutenant Colonel Nicolas but threw additional light on the motives that lead these men of different nationalities into the military cloister of the Legion. From the day of its birth the Legion has been a sanctuary to which all men might repair, for the Legion asks no letters of recommendation from its servants, makes no inquiries into a man's past. Nothing is simpler than enlistment in its ranks. One needs only a sound physique, to be between the ages of 18 and 40, and of any name or nationality that he cares to assume. Only in the case of French citizens does the Legion depart from these simple rules.

The French in the Legion come from two sources. A young Frenchman who has not discharged his military obligations to Madame la Republique, but who desires service in the Legion, must present authorization from the Ministry of War after a searching verification of his case. The others enlist as Swiss or Belgians to facilitate their entry. After a certain period of service, this fraudulent



type of recruit may ask for civil rectification of his true name and nationality, and then is carried on the rolls as of French nationality. Among this class are former officers, broken for some fault or misfortune and many non-commissioned officers with war records. In all, their number is considerable and they are afforded every opportunity for advancement since, with the alien tides of immigration so heavy from German and Russian sources, their presence is a valued asset to the Legion.

As with all volunteer organizations the factors of unemployment and the search for adventure are the chief motives for enlistment. Post-war conditions, however, is the main factor, and one that makes the character and value of its recruits unique in the Foreign Legion. These tragic conditions are especially illuminating in the cases of the Germans and Russians. With the former there was first the crushing of the Spartacist movement; the monarchists to whom the idea of a German republic was repugnant; the reduction of a giant army to the skeleton one of 100,000 laid down by Article 60 of the Versailles Treaty. With the Russians there was the debacle of the Russian White Army; the collapse of Wrangel's forces on the shores of the Black Sea; the later flight from Bolshevism. Spaniards came to the Legion to flee from a dictatorship; and Italians who are opposed to the tenets of Fascism. Other nationalities contribute their quota of men fleeing from the personal tragedies that the great war left in its crimson wake; from the grim specter of unemployment that stalks through Europe.

All these dramatic forces are easily understandable, and that of unemployment is the only one that was true of pre-war days. There will remain the conditions that formerly obtained, and which have always colored the picturesque personnel of the Foreign Legion. In the Legion, as ever, are men driven to it by some emotional crisis, unfortunate love affair, the magnified faults of hot-headed youth, revolt from too rigid parental authority, a pécadillo that threatens disgrace. It may be that the knife of a surgeon has slipped in a delicate operation, or that a financier's power is threatened with sudden collapse, or that a priest faces unfrocking. These bring to the Legion's haven men of the upper stratas of life, the scions of powerful families, marching side by side with their humbler fellows who are fleeing from hunger and can find no worthwhile employment. The Legion offers them security in a topsy-turvy world, the call of strange lands and battle, and surcease from their griefs.

That is why fascinating stories come from the Legion to the prosaic outside world. There is the well-authenticated one of a nostalgic German aristocrat, aloof and bitter, who died of fever in a hospital of the Legion. It was a German cruiser that carried his body from Oran, the royal standard of Germany flying at the main, and a salute pounding its thunder in guns numbered for royalty, for the nostalgic legionnaire was a cousin of the Kaiser. There is another true story, amazing in its dramatic quali-

ties, that was enacted while a regiment of the Legion was fighting in Mexico in 1863. Such had been the dare-devil prowess of the Legion that peasants were afraid to bring produce to its headquarters town until the colonel had an inspiration.

To show the terrified Mexicans that the religion of the Legion was the same as their own, the colonel ordered celebrations of high mass, and legionnaires decorated the little church with palms and flowers. At the last moment the Mexican priest who was to officiate failed to appear, and in desperation the colonel searched his hard-bitten command in the vain hope that some legionnaire had in the past helped in the celebration of a mass. A sentry volunteered, and the celebration of high mass went on through its intricate course without a flaw. No one who had been less than a bishop, it was agreed, could have accomplished the feat. History records that the legionnaire not only acknowledged this, but later won the Medaille Militaire.

Within the past year two legionnaires have been discharged from service prematurely, one, a Frenchman, at the request of the wife of a Marshal of France; the other, an Englishman, at the request of the British Foreign Office. In Morocco a Prince of the House of Bourbon is serving today with the Legion. Famous artists have left their work on the walls of the Legion's Salle d'Honneur; celebrated musicians are numbered in its famous band and orchestra; officers of many nationalities are serving in its ranks; and renowned chefs as its cuisiniers. A legionnaire, bound for Indo China two years ago, left his transport at a midway station to return first class in a liner, discharged by cable orders at the request of a European sovereign.

What of the Anglo-Saxons in the Legion? The answer came to that with true Gallic tact, and Gallic directness, and of a striking unanimity. To the best of my informa-

tion there are but two Americans serving with the Legion today in Northern Africa, one a first lieutenant in Morocco, the other a sergeant in Algeria, and but a handful of Englishmen in all the Legion. The Legion's appraisal of the Anglo-Saxon recruit is that he is a brave and gallant fighter, but inferior in discipline to the European, and the product of two nations whose law-givers hold quaint ideas of affairs military. It is doubtless true that the Anglo-Saxon finds the discipline of the Legion more galling than does the European who has grown to manhood in a frankly militaristic environment. What puzzles the Legion, from its ranking officers to its rawest recruits, is the Anglo-Saxon governmental attitude towards desertion from the Legion, or death in its ranks when facing an implacable enemy.

There was the fairly recent case of an American legionnaire who, gallant in the field, deserted in Syria in revolt against the ennui of garrison routine and road-building, fired on a pursuing patrol, and was sentenced to death. Washington, urged on by members of Congress, had to fight hard to secure his release. In the relentless Moroccan campaign of 1925-1926 three English Legionnaires were



A Foreign Legion Post on the Moroccan Front



killed in action, and the House of Commons reverberated with savage attacks on a Legion that permitted such things. Within the past year an English legionnaire, son of an Ambassador, deserted twice, was arrested twice, and then discharged at the request of the British Foreign Office. Only then did the Legion learn of his antecedents, and that his desertions were attributable to the Goddess of Love, and not the God of War. But that is another story, a truly bizarre one over which the boudoirs of Mayfair chuckled with the braves of the Legion's far-flung lines in North Africa. All in all one gathers that American and English recruits are not inducted into the Foreign Legion today to the strains of martial music and international joy!

How, then, does the Legion inculcate its remarkable esprit in this amazing force of alien soldiers? In it the recruit, from whatever source, soon learns to speak of the Legion, as a fact accepted of all men, as "the premier corps of all the world;" of its famous band as "the most famous band in all the world!" Old legionnaires tell him of its legendary heroes, its historic battles, its epic fight at Camerone, its nine citations in the World War, of its glamorous traditions. The incomparable March of the Legion, played by a band of 180 pieces, reenforced by the 90 buglers and drummers of its "clique," fires him with its irresistible call to arms. The Salle d'Honneur, in whose rich and historic atmosphere the Legion has built a shrine to the deeds and the men of the Legion, is like a hushed cathedral aisle to his quickened sense of pride. He learns early that his officers are of an incontestable capacity, serenely sure of their men's bravery, and that is a combination that would make any military command impregnable. At the end of his fifth week of intensive training he has covered his thirty kilometers of road, under the blazing African sun, with full pack and the Legion is fiercely proud of its marching powers. He is eager for the day when he may swing into action either to die fittingly as becomes a legionnaire, or to emerge a true legionnaire, and no longer a recruit.

Just beyond the grilled gates of the Legion's vast barracks square is the Salle d'Honneur, a low building with a massive bronze door, flanked by giant, feathery



Mess in the Field Is Served by Sections

eucalyptus trees, its garden rich with palms and flowers. It is quiet and peaceful here, and on the porch two legionnaires are chiseling the names of dead officers on marble tablets. Within, its main salon and the adjoining rooms are rich with the trophies, loot and souvenirs of the Legion, in bewildering profusion, yet with perfect taste. Its floors and doors are of Moorish tiling; its walls covered with trophies of the Legion and of the enemies that it has mastered, and overhead are giant candelabra. Its tables are of lightly polished native woods, fashioned by legionnaires, or of intricately carved rare woods, gathered from Algeria to far off Indo China.

The proud standards of the Legion, heavy with the gold-encrusted names of its hundred years of campaigns, face the captured flags that it has wrested in hand-to-hand combats from fierce enemy tribes. There are bronzes, bells and gongs and grinning heathen idols. There are paintings of exotic scenes and of epic fights, done by legionnaires; magnificent vases, stands of captured arms, and photographs of terrain over which the Legion has fought.

Grimly eloquent are the two oiled bolts of rifles of the Legion, found on the bodies of two legionnaires who were killed at Alouana and who, when they could fight no longer, so disabled their rifles in dying obedience to the Legion's stern order that follows all legionnaires in battle. Over one door is the seven-branched, flaming grenade of the Legion, done in minute, many-colored bits of mosaic by a Legion craftsman. Guarding the three flags of the Legion are the lay figures of legionnaires, clad in the uniform of the three periods. On the oldest flag is the motto, worked on the tri-color, of "Honneur et Patrie," on the second "Valeur et Discipline," and on the historic banner carried in the World War, the motto of the Legion today, "Honneur et Fidelite." In each of the rooms are other lay figures, their uniforms true in every detail to the changing uniforms that the Legion has worn in its hundred years of service.

In every room, too, are the marble tablets high on the walls, bearing the names of all officers killed in action, in letters of black. Others, in letters of gold, perpetuate its many campaigns, seventeen in all. The



A Column of Legionnaires on Campaign



The Legion Builds Its Own Roads

photograph of King Peter I, of Serbia, a lieutenant of the Legion in 1870; of Patrick McMahon, son of Irish Kings, Colonel of the Legion, Marshal and late President of France; of the Prince of Monaco, once a lieutenant in the Legion; and those of the nine Marshals of France under whom the Legion has fought, many of them at some time in the Legion, stand out. Under the photograph of Lieutenant Selichhauhausen, a giant Pole who fought with the Legion for thirty-two years is, in his own writing: "I do not fear death, for death is my lot. I fear only to die in the remembrances of those brave friends and comrades of the Foreign Legion." Another faded photograph bears mute, if grisly evidence, that the Legion does not forget its dead. It is that of forty-two sons of the Foreign Legion, killed in battle at d'Icheriden. The Legion uncovered their common grave, excavating for several feet in depth, thirty-eight years after that battle of 1857, to give them ceremonial burial. There they lie, the skeleton of Captain Bouteyre in the foreground and nearby, arms crossed, that of a sergeant, and in solid rows those of the forty legionnaires.

Second in its post of honor only to the Legion's own standards, is a book bound in gold, its leaves edged with gold, the *Livre d'Or*, or the Golden Book of the Legion. It rests on a magnificent table in the main salon. Within, in beautifully regular and bold letters, are inscribed the name, grade and date of death of the men of fifty-two nationalities who died in action for the Legion and France in the World War, on the French, Levant, Orient and Moroccan fronts. The names of the 157 officers and 5712 men are arranged alphabetically and by nationality. Under the heading of Americans are 69, all enlisted men, and among them that of Allan Seeger, the golden-tongued poet whose "I Have a Rendezvous With Death," is still fresh in the hearts of the Legion.

Here is truly a shrine, unique among all military shrines, beautiful and impressive in its fidelity to the dead of the Legion, that has played a yeoman part in the fusion of the many nationalities of the Foreign Legion. Small wonder its recruits boast that they are of "the premier corps in all the world!"

Turn to the history of the Legion, and you will find a story of ceaseless campaigning in seventeen lands since Louis Philippe founded it one hundred years ago. Formed to aid in the conquest of Algeria, it has fought there, in the

Sahara, the Soudan, Dahomey, Madagascar, Formosa, Mexico, Indo China, Syria and Morocco. On the continent it has carried its colors into action in France, Spain, Italy, the Crimea, the Dardanelles, Macedonia and Serbia. Most epic of all its single actions was that of Camerone, in Maximilian's ill-fated expedition to Mexico in 1863. Besieged in a great farm-yard by 6,000 mounted Mexicans, 60 legionnaires fought against those staggering odds for ten hours. At its end, refusing surrender, the Mexicans allowed the survivors to march out with their arms. To their amazement three staggered out, their ammunition exhausted, their bayonets stained with blood. Five hundred Mexicans were the toll of that immortal band and each year, on Camerone Day, the Legion serves out a double ration of its "divine" pinard, and calls the roll of the heroes of Camerone to the monotonous refrain of "Dead on the field of honor!"

There was Tuyen Quan in Indo China in 1885 where two companies held off a force of 20,000 Chinese until relieved, for 47 days, with 158 casualties in its effective strength of 390.

These exploits were against ill-trained troops, but in the World War the Legion was pitted against the flower of the Kaiser's shock troops. It was at Cumieres, on August 20, 1917, where it won its sixth citation in Army Orders, and with it the fourragere of the Legion of Honor, bestowed for the first time in the French Army. Marshal Petain himself affixed the Cross of the Legion of Honor to the colors of Colonel Rollet's glorious First March Regiment of the Legion. The seventh followed before Amiens, after the German break through of the British lines, but the Legion rushed into the breach, closed the road to Amiens forever to the German army. The eighth was at Soissons, in July, 1918, fighting alongside the First and Second American Divisions under Mangin; and the Legion broke the Hindenburg Line two months later to win its ninth citation, a breath-taking record with no parallel in France's military annals.

Armistice Day found the Legion poised for the drive on Metz, and then came a triumphal march across Alsace-Lorraine, a veritable "acoloroliday" for the hard-fighting, hard-drinking legionnaires. That fortnight of festivities and feats ended with the Legion on the banks of the Rhine, the first allied unit to reach the coveted goal. Since the Armistice the Legion proved the spearhead of Petain's bitterly fought campaign against the redoubtable Abd-el-

(Continued on page 45)



A Group of Sergeants in Field Uniform



# The Birth and Infancy of Marine Aviation

By MAJOR EDWIN N. McCLELLAN,  
U. S. Marine Corps.

THERE is a *Muster Roll* of the year 1912 filed with a lot of other muster rolls in the Archives of the Marines at Headquarters in Washington City. It is unique, for it is the Pioneer Muster Roll of the *Flying Leathernecks*. It contains only one name—the name of the first *Early Bird* of the Marines. That name is First Lieutenant Alfred Austell Cunningham. He was the first officer on the active list of the Marine Corps to be a Marine aviator and the notation opposite his name is this:

"Joined May 22, from M. B., Philadelphia, Pa.; on duty Naval Aviation School, Annapolis, Md., 22 to 24; absent from May 25, on temporary foreign shore service, see roll of Co. G, 2nd Regt., Expeditionary Force."

Marine Corps aviators should celebrate that date of May 22, 1912, as the birthday of Marine Corps Aviation.

Everything that *is* had its genesis with a brain-throb, a thought, an idea. After that comes expression in word or deed. Thus, the idea becomes visible to the naked eye and *is*. So with the *Leathernecks* and the *Air*. Listen!

The idea that finally produced a *Flying Gyrene* for the Corps was born in the year 1911 at Philadelphia. The idea was that of Lieutenant Cunningham, who brought about its physical expression. He had been obsessed with the idea of flying ever since he could remember. Back in 1903 he had made two flights as a passenger down in his native State of Georgia in a balloon inflated with illuminating gas. He was still quite air-conscious six years later when he became a Second Lieutenant of American Marines. The year 1911 found First Lieutenant Cunningham on duty at the Philadelphia Marine Barracks. No more ideal or fitting place for the birth of an air-idea for the Marine Corps could have been selected, for it was at Philadelphia in 1775 that an organization of American Marines was ordered to be raised by Continental Congress.

Lieutenant Cunningham met an inventor named Brown at Philadelphia. Mr. Brown had built an airplane with his last money. He had the plane, but also had to live and sorely needed money. He actually needed money with which to buy food. Lieutenant Cunningham saw his great opportunity to get at least one Marine into the air. So he made a deal with Mr. Brown that helped both of them. He leased the plane for twenty-five dollars a month. That delighted both the lessor and the lessee. Now that he had the plane, where would the Lieutenant put it?

Rear-Admiral Albert W. Grant, Commandant of the Philadelphia Navy Yard, was approached by Lieutenant Cunningham for permission to use the half-mile long open field at the north end of the Navy Yard as an aerodrome for this home-made plane, which he called *Noisy Nan*. After some caustically expressed doubts as to the desirability of having such a noisy contraption about and equally caustic predictions as to what would surely happen to whoever tried to fly it, the Admiral finally gave his consent to use the plane at the Navy Yard. The consent of Lieutenant Cunningham's immediate commanding of-



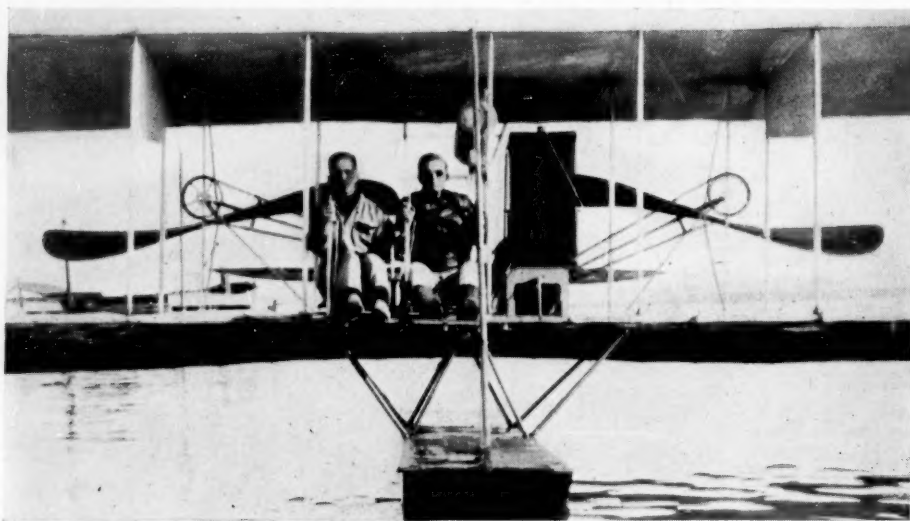
Lieut. Alfred A. Cunningham at the Controls of "Noisy Nan"

ficer, Colonel George Barnett, was obtained without difficulty.

So Lieutenant Cunningham set up his plane. It had a two-cycle four-cylinder engine of the motor-boat type which had been made somewhat lighter by the use of an aluminum crank-case. This engine had all the mulish stubborn traits of the two-cycle engines of that day in an exaggerated form. It often refused to start until an hour or more of back-breaking "cranking." However, when once it consented to start, it ran willingly enough. But the weight of the engine and the home-made plane were a little too much for the power of the engine. While it would skim down the field at what seemed flying speed, it lacked that last few horsepower needed to get it into the air. *Noisy Nan* was stripped almost nude of every ounce of weight not absolutely essential, but she still refused to do more than bounce into the air momentarily.

Then Lieutenant Cunningham built a runway with a





Lieut. Cunningham Instructing Lieut. B. L. Smith in the Operation of the Original Wright B-1.

bump at the bottom. Down the runway the plane would dash, hit the bump and up it would go into the air twenty to fifty feet. Once in the air the Pioneer Gyrene of the Air tried to get sufficient altitude in which to make a turn. But he never succeeded with *Noisy Nan*. So all he could do was to make a straight short flight and make a landing before he got away from the field.

"I called her everything in God's name to go up," said Cunningham. "I pleaded with her, I caressed, I prayed to her, and I cursed that flighty Old Maid to lift her skirts and hike, but she never would. Though I will say this, that beyond that she never threw me down. I learned of air things from that Old Girl."

Up to this time Lieutenant Cunningham had had no flight instruction except what he had gained by "grass cutting" and the short straight flights in *Noisy Nan*. It is not improbable that, had *Noisy Nan* ever gained enough altitude, Rear-Admiral Grant's dire predictions of calamity would have come true.

Next came a step onward and upward. Lieutenant Cunningham joined the Aero Club of Pennsylvania in 1911. He saw a great opportunity to use that Club to advance his idea. He talked air matters for the Marine Corps. He told the Club that the Marines should have airplanes and fly, and, of course, have a Flying Field. The Club members got busy on their Congressmen and Senators. Soon the idea received expression in Washington.

Major General Commandant William P. Biddle, a Philadelphian, sent for Lieutenant Cunningham and bawled him out:

"What are you doing up there in Philadelphia?" he demanded of the young air-enthusiast. "The politicians are trying to get a Marine Corps Flying Field established at Philadelphia and it looks as if you were at the bottom of it all."

Lieutenant Cunningham managed to placate the Washington au-

thorities and escape this first blast of official inquiry. But the urgings by the politicians did not abate; rather they increased in intensity. Lieutenant Cunningham was sent for again and on his arrival in Washington was questioned. He finally admitted that he knew that the politicians were working to have a Marine Flying Field established in Philadelphia.

"Well, what you yourself want is to be ordered to flying duty, isn't it?" queried General Biddle, of Lieutenant Cunningham.

"Yes, sir," admitted the airy Lieutenant.

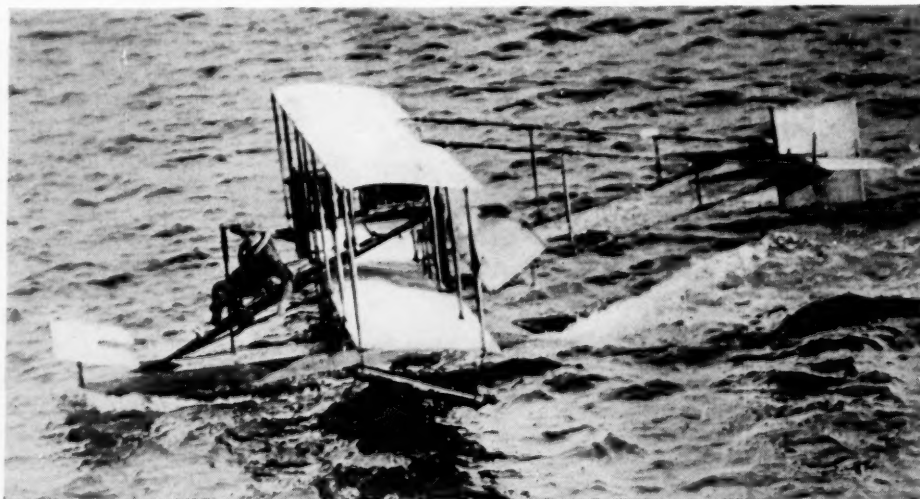
"I thought so!" snapped back the Commandant. "Captain Chambers, who is in charge of Navy Aviation, agrees that if you will call off the politicians he will request

that you be ordered to the Naval Aviation Camp at Annapolis for aviation duty."

Before replying to this attractive offer, Cunningham discussed with General Biddle the subject of whether or not the Marines should not have their own aviation station separate from that of Navy aviation. That did not seem feasible at the time, so Lieutenant Cunningham agreed to go into naval aviation as a Marine. On his return to Philadelphia he used his influence to have the politicians cease their efforts.

It is almost nineteen years since First Lieutenant Alfred Austell Cunningham reported for duty at the Annapolis Aviation Camp on May 22, 1912. And a million and more minutes have passed from those early days of the antique *Suicide Crates* to the *Flying Bull-Carts* of Nicaragua.

Lieutenant Cunningham reported to the Superintendent of the Naval Academy, Captain John Henry Gibbons, and Lieutenant John Rodgers, the officer in charge of the Aviation Camp, on May 22, 1912, for duty in connection with aviation. Those orders were all that was necessary to make Lieutenant Cunningham the first Marine Corps aviator. They made him an official flyer.



The First Navy Curtiss Plane, Showing the Pilot's Lack of Protection and the Front Elevator in Addition to the Conventional Elevator on the Tail.



The Original Navy Wright B-1 Plane, Illustrating the Flexible Warping Wings.

He remained at Annapolis only until May 25, when he received orders to proceed to temporary foreign tropical shore service.

July 9, 1912, found Lieutenant Cunningham resuming his regular duties at Annapolis, his muster roll carrying the notation "returned from temporary expeditionary duty on board *U.S.S. Georgia*."

No pilot licenses were required for Naval aviators, the orders of officers to aviation duty being all that was necessary to make them official pilots. Later, Congress passed a law giving flying pay, so officers received letters in order to receive the additional pay. Still later, in 1914, the Navy established the designation of "Naval Aviator," and Lieutenant Cunningham holds Naval Aviator's Certificate No. 5. In 1913 he was awarded Federation Aeronautic Internationale Seaplane Pilot's Certificate No. 2, a civilian having been awarded the first certificate of this kind.

The muster roll for July, 1912, carried this note regarding Lieutenant Cunningham: "9th to 30th, under instruction in aviation; 31st, enroute to Marblehead, Mass., for detached duty in connection with aviation, order of Major General Commandant dated July 29, No. 51,092."

Lieutenant Cunningham spent from August 2 to September 28, 1912, at the Burgess Company and Curtiss Factory at Marblehead, Mass. He made his first solo flight, after entering Naval Aviation, on August 20, 1912.

While at Marblehead, Cunningham received his final instructions and flew for many hours. The record of these hours in the air was not made a matter of statistics. As a result Lieutenant

Cunningham's early flying time suffers in the records.

During these early days a naval aviator was ordered to the airplane factory for training as the Navy had no facility for that purpose. As a reward for training the aviator, the Navy bought a plane from the factory that trained him. The aviator would remain at the factory to superintend the building of the plane. When the plane was finished, he and the plane were ordered back to naval aviation.

The first enlisted man connected with Marine Corps aviation was Sergeant James Maguire, who joined Lieutenant Cunningham at Marblehead on August 28, 1912. Regarding Maguire, Lieutenant Cunningham, on August 12, 1912, wrote Captain Washington I. Chambers, of the Navy:

"There is a Sergeant James Maguire at the Marine Barracks, Philadelphia, Pa., who, to my personal knowl-  
(Continued on page 43)



Lieut. Cunningham Returning From a Flight in the Original Curtiss Plane.



# The Marine Corps Schools

By BRIGADIER GENERAL RANDOLPH C. BERKELEY, U. S. Marine Corps

**M**ILITARY EDUCATION for officers at Quantico, Virginia, is almost as old as the post itself. The first Marine Officers' School was assembled here in July, 1917, and then for three years gave second lieutenants a short course in the basic duties of a Marine Officer. In January, 1920, the course was enlarged, subjects added and the time extended from a bare three months to twenty-two weeks.

In the summer of 1920 a reorganization was made and the first Field Officers' Class assembled, and on October 1st commenced a nine months' course modeled on the lines of Leavenworth, but based principally on the instruction that had been so successful in the Marine Officers' Infantry School. This course was not as extensive or as advanced as Leavenworth, but was exceedingly well adapted to meet the needs of the field officers of the Marine Corps. The schools' staff also prepared a Company Officers' Course, which began in the fall of 1921 after the results of the Selection Board had been published. In addition, a Basic School for newly commissioned Second Lieutenants was organized and functioned here at Quantico until the fall of 1924 when lack of suitable accommodations forced its transfer to the Marine Barracks, Navy Yard, Philadelphia, Pa. The Basic School as originally organized was a five months' course, but it was soon found that this was too brief a period to cover the essential subjects that should be mastered by all lieutenants, and so it was increased to nine months, and now, instead of two basic courses a year, we have but one, starting the first week in September, spending the fall and winter on theoretical work, and going to Mt. Gretna, Pa., for the months of May and June where practical instruction in weapons and tactics is given. The Basic School at Philadelphia has as its students the newly commissioned officers from the ranks, second lieutenants just out of the Naval Academy and the officers appointed from the distinguished military colleges. Its function is to train the personnel coming from these three separate sources, educate them along Marine Corps lines and so fit them to step into active service and take their places here in the state, at sea and foreign stations along with other lieutenants of our Corps. While the Basic School is at Philadelphia, it is under the direction of the Commandant, Marine Corps Schools, Quantico, who exercises supervision over the courses taught, ground covered and co-ordinates the instruction of all three schools so that there will be progression in the Military Education of Marine Officers.

The Company Officers' School here at Quantico has as students senior First Lieutenants and Captains, and covers in a nine months' course of instruction all subjects required for promotion from first lieutenant to captain. Its course in Infantry Weapons is comprehensive and of great value to officers detailed to line duty involving the command of combat units. The course starts each fall with instruction in small units (squad and section) and after the mastery of the basic principles of these, carries the student on up to and through the reinforced regiment, placing special emphasis on the handling of the company and battalion. Law, Naval Ordnance and Gunnery, Field Engineering, Animal Management,

Equitation, Landing Operations and Topography are also covered. The last six weeks are spent on terrain exercises where the student is taught to apply on the ground, that which he has learned from the map. Following instructions received from the Major General Commandant, there will be, beginning with the fall term, 1931, an hour daily devoted to instruction in Spanish in both the Basic and Company Officers' Courses. The Berlitz Method will be used, and commencing with January, 1936, a working knowledge of Spanish will be required for promotion from First Lieutenant to Captain. From the year 1921-1922, up to and including the school year 1929-1930, a total of 298 officers have attended the Company Officers' Course.

The first Field Officers' Class was assembled here in the fall of 1920 and completed its instruction on June 30, 1921. Since then the time of assembly has been moved up into September so that it now commences the first week in September and finishes in the third week of June. Starting with the Infantry School and Leavenworth as a basis, the course has changed from year to year until now a Department of Overseas takes up a large part of the students' time. This instruction is most important for Marine Officers and has gradually developed from a few hours until now it occupies about one-fifth of the students' time. All Marine Corps Schools Commandants—Colonel Beaumont, General Fuller, General Dunlap, Colonel Breckenridge and myself have been vitally interested in the development of this course. During the summer a special board met for the purpose of improving and expanding the instruction which is a development of these schools and closely linked up with their history. Since the assembly of the first class in the fall of 1920, 198 Marine Officers, six Naval Officers, and two Army Officers have attended the full Field Officers' Course. Having students from the other branches of the service is a great benefit to all, as it gives them an insight into how the other man thinks as well as showing them how the Naval and Army doctrines might be applied to Marine Corps situations.

The Military Correspondence Courses are a part of the Marine Corps Schools and are located here in the school area at Quantico. While part and parcel of the Marine Corps Schools, their history is intimately linked up with that of the Marine Corps Reserve, for it is through this medium that Reserve Officers are able to get theoretical military instruction. During the past seven years these courses have been of inestimable value not only to reserves but to regular officers who for one reason or another desire to further their military knowledge along certain lines. In addition to the regular courses, the Correspondence Schools have prepared from time to time special courses, such as "The 10th Regiment Artillery Course," requested by the artillery and designed to meet the needs of those officers and men serving with the 10th Regiment here in Quantico. During the past year, 50 students have graduated from the various correspondence courses while a total of 432 were borne on the rolls. The most popular courses seem to be "Infantry Basic," "Infantry Company" and "Infantry Advanced."

The Department of Reproduction has grown in the



past eight years from one small room containing a hand-operated mimeograph machine until now it occupies about eight thousand square feet in the brick building formerly used as a motor repair shop. Its present equipment includes automatic casting machines, automatic presses, lithographing and blue-printing outfits as well as a large photographic section. It handles all work required by the Correspondence, Company and Field Officers Courses and in addition does almost all Post printing. An idea of the volume of work turned out by this plant may be gained from the fact that it handled eight hundred and thirty jobs of printing, turning out 730,350 copies during the past year, these jobs varying in size from a few sheets to small books of seventy-five or more pages.

The quality of work done is comparable to that of the best printing shops.

The Marine Corps Schools are composed of the following activities:

- (a) Field Officers' Course.
- (b) Company Officers' Course.
- (c) Correspondence Courses.
- (d) Department of Reproduction.
- (All of the above at Quantico.)
- (e) Basic Course (located at Marine Barracks, Navy Yard, Philadelphia, Pa).

and have, through the above listed courses, *The Mission of Progressively Advancing the Useful Professional Knowledge in the Marine Corps.*

## The White King of La Gonave

By Faustin Wirkus and Taney Dudley.  
Publishers: Doubleday, Doran & Company,  
Inc., Garden City, New York. 333 pages.  
\$3.50.

WHEN the facile pen of William B. Seabrook brought forth *The Magic Isle* with its weird tales of African superstition and voodoo ceremonies in the mountains of Haiti many readers in the United States got many a thrill from these mystery tales of the strange superstitions and rites of savage sorcery brought from the wilds of Africa years ago by the slave ancestors of the present Haitians and still practiced today in various forms in Haiti, and even in our own southern states.

Seabrook told in his book of the American Marine sergeant who, while serving as a lieutenant of the Garde d'Haiti, had been crowned as "King of La Gonave" by the simple natives of the island of that name, where he won the support and friendship of the natives by fair treatment and justice tempered with mercy and by the aid he gave them in improving their conditions as little farmers and fishermen living on their tropical isle in very primitive state. This tale of Faustin II., King of La Gonave, caught the fancy of readers all over America and even in foreign lands, and Lieutenant Faustin Wirkus, G. d'H., received an increasing burden of mail from curious people in many far places asking for corroboration of Seabrook's strange tale or for more details of Wirkus' strange experiences with the half barbaric natives of the Isle of La Gonave.

Lieutenant Wirkus was urged to write a book of his experiences but he did not feel equal to the task unassisted, so he secured the assistance of an experienced writer to aid him in setting down the details of his strange experience as the recognized ruler of the simple but superstitious natives of La Gonave. The so-called "Ghost Writers," while they may produce a readable story, rarely succeed in getting the real personality of the principal actor woven into the story, but Seabrook, in his introduction to this book, claims that Taney Dudley has kept the personality of Lieutenant Wirkus in the story while adding to it her own skill in writing.

However this may be, the results as shown in the

published book make *The White King of La Gonave* a very readable and entertaining story with many details of the life and customs of the Haitians of the hills and back country which will be of great interest to all who are interested in the life of their strange people, who, when forcibly transplanted from Darkest Africa to serve hard masters in a tropical island across the sea, took with them the superstitions and wild religious rites of their native wilds and wove it into the fabric of their lives and the lives of their descendants strangely mingled with the religion and the rites that the white Padres from Europe attempted to impress upon them.

The attempts of the United States to bring order out of chaos in the Black Republic have met with many disappointments to the idealists and to the politician, but have produced some good in improved conditions of life, sanitation, communications, good order and progress for the population of the island. Whether this will be lasting remains to be seen under the test of coming years, but the experience there has at least been beneficial to the great masses of the native inhabitants, and through the story of the strange experiences of Lieutenant Wirkus runs the thread of the story of what the American Marines are doing to aid a simple and trusting people, the common country people of Haiti, in their daily struggle for a livelihood.

He tells in entertaining manner of his enlistment in the Marine Corps, his recruit training in the "Boot Camp" at Parris Island, his detail to overseas duty in Haiti, and his experiences with the Marines and the Garde d'Haiti in the Magic Isle for a term of several years' service; and the result is a readable book of adventure which should prove of interest and entertainment to the personnel of the Corps.

The story of his selection as the "King of La Gonave" by the native inhabitants makes good reading for the casual reader and in its official bearing is explained in the language of Lieutenant Wirkus as follows:

"My friends of the Aviation Corps were curious about it, but I didn't tell them much because I really do not enjoy being laughed at by anybody but myself. It was necessary to explain to them that I was playing king, because it helped the natives make play out of being good, law-abiding citizens just as they made play out of their work and religion."

# The Employment of a Marine Corps Expeditionary Force in a Major Emergency

By LIEUT. COLONEL WALTER N. HILL, U. S. Marine Corps

**G**EOGRAPHICALLY, in relation to the other great naval powers of the world, the United States occupies an isolated position. Long sea routes over which the great bulk of her foreign trade must be transported separate her from these countries, and a future emergency culminating in hostilities will undoubtedly develop a maritime war. Maritime war will always involve the combined operations of the Army and Navy. The composition and nature of these operations will depend upon the national objective. In a maritime war between two great naval powers, the struggle will involve an overseas naval campaign by the stronger and more aggressive. Sufficient pressure must be exerted by one upon the other to cause overtures of peace to be made. This will not be accomplished otherwise than by defeating the enemy's naval and military forces, and probably occupying vital areas of his territory.

The primary naval mission will be to exercise sufficient control over certain sea areas to prevent the enemy fleet from operating against our expeditionary forces while en route, while the ultimate naval mission will be to gain complete control of the sea by defeating the enemy's main fleet. The primary mission of the Marine Corps is, therefore, to support the Navy in the accomplishment of its missions, by furnishing an expeditionary force for shore operations necessary for the effective prosecution of the fleet operations.

If our fleet is to engage in an offensive overseas campaign, the area of operations will probably be at a great distance from our shores. Here, in order to establish itself in superior force, it must have bases from which to operate. Bases for the fleet have always been vital, but their usefulness has increased in modern times. The more complicated our ships become, the greater and more frequent become their demand for overhaul. That these bases are vitally part of naval plans, is demonstrated by the following quotation from "The Conduct of an Overseas Campaign," by Lieut. Comdr. H. H. Frost, U. S. N., as follows: "The Commander in Chief of the advancing fleet must assemble his forces, organize his transportation service, proceed across the ocean, seize a temporary base, consolidate his position, and then exert decisive pressure upon the enemy by means of an economic blockade." Therefore, if our national strategy has not provided us with naval bases, or if such bases as we possess have fallen into enemy hands, our war strategy must provide at the outset for seizing such bases and converting them into fleet bases.

Overseas expeditions combine two general types of operations merging more or less into one another. These two general types may be defined as follows:

1. First, purely naval overseas expeditions which do not contemplate permanent occupancy of enemy territory. Such expeditions might be preliminary to

others of a combined nature, or they might constitute a part of an overseas campaign to shut off the sea trade of a nation which was dependent for its existence on such a trade.

2. Secondly, those combined overseas expeditions, the object of which is invasion of hostile territory. An operation which necessitates command of the sea by our Navy, as the Army's lines of communication must be continuously open and secure, otherwise operations on shore will fail.

In either case, a Marine Corps expeditionary force will accompany the fleet on its overseas campaign. This force will be organized and equipped as a landing force to seize and hold temporary operating bases for the fleet. Fleets alone can not capture land bases; troops must be landed. Thus, the expeditionary force must be available as soon after M day as the fleet is ready to sail.

In such a campaign, it may be necessary to advance into the ultimate theater of operations by a series of steps. This will involve the establishment of advanced bases, and more advanced bases. For this reason, as soon as the first bases are secure, their defense should be taken over by the Army, so as to preserve the mobility of the fleet and the Marines with it. As the fleet advances, enemy bases in the vital sea areas should be attacked in order to drive the hostile fleet to sea for decisive action.

When the fleet has gained command of the sea by destroying or immobilizing the enemy fleet, the Marine expeditionary force should be utilized to seize bases for future Army operations. It is probable that the original expeditionary force has been reinforced by this time, making it strong enough to act as a spearhead for the Army by forcing a landing and occupying a beach head from which combined operations may be conducted to secure a seaport suitable for the main base of the Army of invasion. In this last situation it is probable that the Marine Corps will require the support of an early Army expeditionary force, for it is doubtful if the Marine expedition, although reinforced, would be strong enough to meet the strength the enemy might develop in his homeland.

In contrast to the offensive overseas campaign, is the defense of our home waters. This situation may be brought about from two causes. The early defeat of our own fleet, or the strength of the enemy fleet may be such as to make us assume the defensive. In either case, while prepared to take the offensive, we must contest the advance of the hostile fleet into our waters. All suitable naval bases in or near our coastal waters must be seized and defended. Also, all such vital areas as the Panama Canal. If the enemy already possesses such bases, they must be attacked and at least denied to the enemy. For all these operations Marine Corps expeditionary forces will support the fleet.



It seems appropriate before entering further on this study to cite certain historical instances of Marine Corps functions. The military man depends largely on the warnings of history to increase his store of knowledge, and in this connection, it may be interesting to note from the few instances here quoted, that the conception of the functions of the Marine Corps has not changed during over a hundred years.

The earliest example of the use of Marines as an expeditionary force in attacking an enemy base was in 1776, when a force of Marines was embarked on Commodore Hopkin's squadron of small vessels which sailed to the Bahamas to attack the British naval base at New Providence. On this occasion the Marines, under Captain Nichols, landed, assaulted the enemy forts, and destroyed all the military stores at the base.

An interesting object lesson in the seizing of naval advanced bases occurred in 1861 when a joint expedition of the Army and Navy was organized to seize and occupy one or more points on the southern coast which the Federal blockading fleet might use as operating bases. On November 8, 1861, a naval force under Captain Du Pont, U. S. N., attacked Port Royal, defeated the Confederate forces, landed Marines and seamen, who took possession of the forts until the arrival of the Army.

In June, 1898, Admiral Sampson found himself operating off the hostile coast of Cuba, with his nearest friendly base at Key West, Florida. He requested that the Marine expeditionary force, held in readiness on the U.S.S. Panther, be sent to Santiago. On June 10th this battalion, under Colonel Huntington, arrived, and the Admiral directed it to Guantanamo Bay, Cuba, to land and establish a base. This was accomplished, and Guantanamo Bay became the operating base for the fleet. Immediately after Admiral Dewey's naval victory at Manila, five battalions of Marines were despatched to the Philippines to hold our naval bases in those islands.

The World War did not offer an opportunity for employment of Marine expeditionary forces as landing troops in an overseas naval campaign. Throughout the war our allies were able to provide all the necessary repair and operating bases for our fleet, while our overseas expeditionary forces landed in friendly ports. One can well imagine what difficulties we might have experienced had there been no British Islands; while in their place existed only small barren islands at Scapa, Rosth, Harwich and Dover, each strongly defended by German garrisons and submarines. At the very outbreak of the war, according to a pre-arranged plan, all these bases were strongly fortified by the Royal Marines. During the naval attack on the Dardanelles, a naval operating base became the imperative need of the British fleet, and a force of Royal Marines was despatched to seize the Turkish Islands of Lemos, Imbros and Tenedos.

It is beyond the scope of this paper to undertake a general discussion of landings against opposition in their connection with joint overseas operations. Such a study involves many features of a joint nature that would be beyond the sphere of any Marine expeditionary force. There are, however, certain phases of the landing which, due to their distinct and amphibious nature, will bear a brief discussion here. In

fact, they constitute the reasons why the Marine Corps exists as an integral part of the Navy, and as such, constitutes the arm of the Naval Service which will have such an important role in maritime war. Landing on a hostile shore, even when enemy resistance is negligible, involves hazards which constantly invite disaster. Dangers from the elements alone are numerous, and, when there is added a well organized enemy resistance, the task approaches the impossible. It has been stated that the operation of landing in the face of enemy resistance is the most difficult in war. The operation may be likened to the passage of a great natural obstacle, the accomplishment of which requires special measures on the part of the assailant.

There are many features of overseas operations which, if properly manipulated, will render the task of the landing force less difficult. Of these, the principal one is surprise, a factor obtained by feints, diversions, smoke screens and darkness.

Secrecy concerning destination is the first and most important principle to maintain. This can only be accomplished by exercising great care prior to embarkation. In overseas operations the mobility of the fleet gives the landing force great latitude and freedom in selecting points and times in which landings may take place. A fleet is not confined to any particular route or area of action. If, then, secrecy as to early movements is strictly adhered to, the enemy may be completely deceived.

Feints and diversions should be made at other points than the main landing. These feints should be as realistic as possible, and troops should actually be landed; otherwise the enemy will soon become aware of the true situation. The British demonstration at Saros was not thoroughly carried out, and the Turkish General Staff, discovering the ruse, withdrew their troops. On the other hand, during the Hawaiian maneuvers of 1925, a false landing was made at the most probable landing place with such apparent earnestness, that the defender's attention was entirely diverted from the main landing, which was only feebly opposed. In all such situations the attacker occupies the favorable position, for the defender can not fully develop his defense until he knows his adversary's objective.

Another contributory factor to surprise will be the proper advantages taken of darkness and smoke screens. The effective use of smoke screens is still an untried factor in modern war.

There is a popular idea that the use of smoke will conceal everything and is a cure for all evils. This is not a fact. Smoke may hinder our own operations as much as it may conceal our movements from the enemy. Smoke will not help our vessels to avoid reefs and shoals while approaching the coast, neither will it assist our landing boats in keeping correct courses for the beach. Local currents, tides and the natural darkness of night make it difficult enough for them to reach their objectives, but when there is added the artificial fog of a smoke screen, uncertainty prevails. The fickleness of the wind becomes a continuous embarrassment also when smoke is used. Smoke, however, can be properly used, and may assist in deceiving the enemy. Smoke must be laid down by fast moving, shoal draft boats, that can rapidly approach the beaches under cover of darkness and



place the screen as close as possible to the shore. Destroyers and aeroplanes will lay down the off-shore screen to conceal the movements of our transports from the enemy.

The selection of the landing place will also constitute an important factor. The Marine Expeditionary Force Commander should select the proposed landing place after consultation with the Naval Commander. The nature and configuration of the coast line has a great influence on this important selection. The conformation, extent, and the shape of the areas they border on, or enclose, influence their vulnerability. The attacker, having command of the sea, is not limited in his choice of landing place, except as the characteristics of each affect his plans. This selection of a landing place is strongly influenced by the nature of the coast itself, and a study of different types and the local influence of topographical, hydrographical and meteorological conditions is necessary.

To all intents and purposes, in landing operations, the enemy's coast line becomes his frontier, and the principles of strategy are affected by the length, conformation and character of this coast line. The sea frontier will seldom be a straight line, but will twist and turn in many directions as bays, gulfs and promontories affect its shape. Obstacles such as these may limit the sphere of action of the invader considerably and may even deny to him long stretches of the coast. The salient and re-entrant features of the coast line influence the choice of landing places. The salient caused by a peninsula gives the attacker great freedom of action. Being more mobile while on board ship than the land forces of the defender, he can move his forces quickly and strike on any beach he pleases. When a large gulf or bay forms a re-entrant the attacker again has the advantage, as he is operating on interior lines and may land on either side. Furthermore, such bodies of water are more or less sheltered and afford refuge during storms. Islands, if not too large and irregular in shape, give to the defender the advantage of interior lines. Small bays and harbors may possess natural facilities for landing, but they are easily defended, and their beaches generally can be enfiladed. The heavy losses of the British at "V" and "W" beaches on the Gallipoli peninsula serves to indicate the character of defense that can be established in small coves.

Long, straight shore lines give an advantage to the landing troops as they allow the operation to be conducted on a broad front, and the enemy's fire is necessarily purely frontal. On the other hand, such beaches are exposed to the elements and there is no shelter if the weather becomes stormy. Even on calm days there will generally be a surf on shores that border directly on the sea.

Landing places that may appear at first impracticable can often be negotiated with success. Furthermore, the defender, little expecting such a place to be used, will offer only slight resistance. Once ashore, the infantry may work its way along and by flanking action uncover beaches of a more convenient type. An excellent example of this is the seizure of Santo Domingo City by the Marines in 1915. Santo Domingo City on the Ozama river was strongly defended by revolutionary forces under General Arras, the approach to the city from the sea was via a narrow

river channel commanded by field pieces and machine guns in Fort Ozama. Any attempt at landing along the river banks would have resulted in serious losses. Under cover of darkness about 500 Marines and sailors were landed through the surf on an open beach, seven miles below the city, with a result that at daybreak this force was in position commanding the city. General Arras hastily evacuated, and Santo Domingo was seized without loss.

In studying a coast line with a view to contemplated operations, the meteorological as well as the hydrographical features should be considered. It matters little how excellent the landing places are if the weather or the condition of the inshore waters makes communication with the beach impossible. The sources for information are charts, tide tables, and nautical almanacs. Monographs issued by the Office of Naval Intelligence on foreign countries give much detailed information, but it will generally be found that there is never enough information on the subject. It is, therefore, important that in times of peace, careful studies should be made of all possible landing places.

It can be seen, therefore, that in considering possible landing places, that there will be large sections of the coast line which need receive only slight consideration, because of natural causes which make it an impossible or dangerous barrier. The places chosen must be those that offer the greatest chances of success and at the same time meet all needs. The enemy must be deceived, he must be surprised at places where he is least prepared to resist, and the landing force, by striking suddenly, penetrate sufficiently to seize and hold an ample beach head.

The disembarkation of the landing force involves an operation essentially different from all other forms of warfare. This phase embraces all the activities pertaining to the approach to the beach; the disembarkation from ships to boats; the move from ship to shore; and finally the assault on the beach itself. The assaulting force must be able to embark in the landing boats without confusion and disembark as quickly as possible on reaching the shore. The rapidity with which this is carried out directly affects the probable losses. The whole operation may be divided into three distinct phases, each overlapping the other to such a degree that it is difficult to differentiate where naval command should end, and shore command commence. These phases are:

1. The placing of the transports.
2. The transfer of troops to the landing boats.
3. The advance to the beach.

The sea area in which the transports must anchor, or heave to, must be carefully selected. It should be as near the shore as possible, but can not be so close as to subject the ships to artillery fire from the shore. An ideal position would be one in about ten fathoms of water (which would greatly hamper enemy submarine activities) not too far from the landing beach, and sufficiently sheltered to permit of easy disembarkation from the ship.

Probably the most difficult part of the entire operation of disembarkation is the transfer of the troops from ship to boat. Even with Marines, thoroughly experienced in duty afloat, it is a difficult operation, especially at night in a rough sea when the boats are

plunging up and down alongside, and confusion can easily be created. Naval and Marine officers must collaborate in the preparation of schedules for assembling the boats and embarking the men. The paramount requirements, therefore, during the move from ship to shore are order and speed; for at this most trying period the troops, crowded into the landing boats, are helpless, and may become completely demoralized by an annihilating fire, before they ever reach the beach.

The aim of this entire operation is to throw men ashore fast enough to exert a preponderance of force at the water's edge. The most crucial point of a forced landing is the high watermark on the beach; if the landing is defeated here, disaster follows. Nature may interpose such difficulties as will defeat the invaders by retarding this movement, but the high command can minimize this chance by careful preparation of such details as will make the movement as orderly and as speedy as possible.

Special training is required to meet the requirements of the amphibious phase of landing operations. An overseas expedition involves a sea voyage which will terminate, for the Marine Corps expedition, in landing operations. If this expeditionary force is not composed of Marines, but is made up of troops unaccustomed to the sea and habits of life on board ship, there is a grave probability that there would be many ineffectives due to seasickness and the radical change from their usual habits of living. Any one who has experienced the effects of seasickness will appreciate what lack of determined fighting capacity there is in a man suffering from that malady. The remedy to such a condition lies, therefore, in the training, organization and experience of the Marine Corps as an integral part of the Navy, to enable it to provide a force of men, trained and accustomed to serving at sea, and equally capable of combat ashore.

The Marine Corps expeditionary force should be trained in conjunction with the naval units that are to assist in the landing. In this way mutual confidence is established and proper cooperation is assured. A large per cent of the force should be composed of officers and men who have already had experience at sea, a fact which will greatly facilitate the training as a whole. The whole force must be skilled in the handling of the landing boats. They must be drilled in manning these boats from the transport in all kinds of conditions of rough and smooth water. A thorough knowledge of boatmanship must be imparted to all ranks. Incessant boat drills under simulated actual conditions will teach each man his exact place in the landing boat, which Jacob's ladder to use to get there, and exactly what his individual duties are in the boat. Everything should be done to rehearse the actual operation as far as circumstances will permit.

The Marine Corps must be specially organized to meet the tactical requirements of the situation. The system must be such that organizations can be placed on one ship in complete units, which, when landed, will find themselves in the proper wave of assault. A single ship must carry units from the different arms, together with ammunition, and artillery support. In this way, although an infantry regiment may overlap on two ships, when the regiment is landed, it will reach the beach in the formation for the assault, with

its machine guns and supporting artillery in close contact. This feature requires a very careful study for the order of landing, as there will be absolutely no opportunity for any change in formation while the landing is being made. The troops must be landed in waves for the reason that from the moment they leave the ship they are committed to the attack. A careful boat schedule must be made which will designate the number and type of boats for each wave, the units to go, the place of landing, and the time of departure from the ship. The number, size, and capacity of the transports will affect the organization of the landing force. No two ships will be found with the same carrying space, and while each ship will be loaded to capacity, the troop distribution must be such that complete units of infantry battallions, which will include a howitzer and machine gun company with three rifle companies, tank platoons, light artillery batteries, and the necessary headquarters companies, are on the same transport.

The Marine Corps Division as at present provided for in the Organization Tables admits of being so distributed on different ships so as to comply with all tactical requirements. A force of this size *must* be available within the time necessary for the fleet to mobilize. Its units are of relatively small numerical strength, and are, therefore, capable of being loaded aboard ship in a tactical formation.

Ships capable of handling larger units will prove too difficult to maneuver, and will draw too much water to be successfully handled in the transport area. A vessel capable of carrying about 2,000 troops (400 tons) will be the most suitable for all tactical requirements. A ship of this size can carry the following units:

Hq. & Hq. Co., Inf. Regt.	Engr. Company
Serv. Co., Inf. Regt.	Hq. Plat., Tank Co.
1st Bn., Inf. Regt.	One 75 mm. gun Btry.

These units, landed in waves in conjunction with waves from other ships, will throw a correctly proportioned force on the beach, properly supported by auxiliary arms. The fire power of the leading wave might be increased if armed with automatic weapons.

Up to the present too little attention has been paid to the development of a proper type of landing boat or barge. Many different methods have been employed in landing troops on a hostile shore. Pulling boats, motor sailers, barges, beetle boats, and grounded transports; none of which have ever proved satisfactory. The Navy has no type of boat other than the regulation ship's boats designed for ordinary uses, and these do not meet the qualifications required. The expedient of grounding a transport is almost foredoomed to failure. An infinitesimal knowledge of local soundings is required for success, while the error of only a few feet will cause bloody disaster.

A troop transporting boat must be equipped to encounter underwater obstacles, such as wire, or stakes, or even small mines. It must be able to land through moderate surf, or on a rocky shore. It must have some overhead protection for its personnel against bombing attacks, as well as splinter proof cover for fire from the shore. These boats should have the carrying capacity of two platoons of infantry, or their equivalent, in addition to the crew, and must be



broad, flat-bottomed self-propelled steel boats, capable of beaching without damage to rudder or propeller. The bow should be scow shaped and provided with a hinged ramp to facilitate disembarkation. Such a boat would be about fifty feet in length. The cargo carrying boats or barges should be of similar designs to the passenger boats, and should have capacity to carry two (2) seventy-fives with their caissons and tractors, or two light tanks. These barges must be provided with ramps so the tractors can land under their own power. In addition to these two types, fast small boats similar in shape should be available for command boats and general utility missions. All boats must have mounts for machine guns, and the large boat could carry a 37 mm.

If smaller boats are resorted to the result may be a disastrous scattering of forces due to any number of conditions, such as:

1. Unforeseen meteorological conditions, such as: sudden squalls, shift of wind, or unknown currents.

2. Lack of boatmanship on the part of the crews. There cannot be an officer in each small boat, and the noncommissioned officer in charge must be thoroughly trained.

3. The difficulty of finding enough trained men to skillfully handle small boats. It requires more skill to handle a small boat which finds itself more at the mercy of the elements than a heavy craft.

4. The liability of breakdown among so many smaller motor boats.

5. The danger that any of the above conditions may scatter the force, thus causing the attack to break up at its most crucial moment, namely, the arrival on the beach.

Logistics forms, perhaps, the most important element of the overseas expedition. Ignorance in estimating the logistic requirements was one of the principle British failures at the Dardanelles. This subject, however, is too broad to be other than merely touched upon in this paper, and only a few points peculiarly exclusive to Marine Expeditions will be discussed.

An overseas expedition for the Marine Corps must be viewed in the light of a campaign rather than a single operation, as it will probably cover a long period of time. During this campaign, it is very probable that the only source of supply for the expedition will be transported from the home bases, or available in the fleet. It is not likely that dependence can be placed on local resources, for it is hardly probable that advanced bases would be established in a territory of fully developed resources. They would be more apt to consist of a small group of islands, or isolated portions of the enemy coast.

Prior to the departure of the expedition from home ports, a decision must be reached as to the quantity of all classes of supply that will be needed. These stores must be loaded on the transports according to tactical plan. Past experience has proved that the stores for a Marine Expedition will, in all probability, be unloaded at such times as the tactical situation permits, and from the ships lying at anchor offshore. Docks will seldom be available. For this reason it has proved expedient to divide all stores into three general classes. First-class, consisting of equipment required for the landing force for the first three days. This would consist of the necessary military equip-

ment, ammunition, and rations. Second-class, supplies necessary for the first twenty-seven days, thus making of classes one and two, one month's supply. Class three would consist of a three months' complete supply.

The Marine Corps expeditionary force comes into being at the outbreak of hostilities through the necessity of securing advance operating bases for the fleet. These bases are rarely located in thoroughly commanded seas. Therefore, after the base has been taken, a period of uncertain supply must ensue, and to meet this the initial three months' supply, as shown above, is provided. The expeditionary force depends entirely upon the fleet for guarding its lines of communication, while the fleet relies on the expeditionary force to protect its advanced bases.

The effectiveness of the artillery support to the landing, by the Navy, has afforded much discussion. It is a subject that should be given more thought by both the Navy and the Marine Corps. Naval guns are limited in their efficiency for this type of fire. Supporting naval gun fire can be made more effective, however, by close liaison with the shore for fire direction and control. Ships should send their own control officers ashore. Fire charts must be prepared and supplied to the Naval or Marine Corps Commanders.

This paper does not enter into the aviation phase of landing operations. The study has been limited to the discussion of the Marine Corps Expeditionary Force and its functions in support of the Fleet. The functions of the auxiliary arms are studies in themselves. It may be said, however, that the Marine Corps Expeditionary Force must be strong in Aviation, for without obtaining, and holding, control of the air no landing can be successful.

We have tried to show that the Marine Corps has a special function as an expeditionary force in a major emergency, consisting of three possible missions:

1. To assist the Navy in its overseas campaign by seizing or capturing advanced operating bases.

2. To hold and defend these bases until required to move with the Fleet to other operations. At which time, if necessary, the defense of the base will be taken up by the Army.

3. To assist the Navy in seizing or capturing advanced bases for the Army, and hold a beach head for the Army.

In conclusion, it can be certainly said that, in order to fulfill these missions, the Marine Corps must make preparations in time of peace. We must bear always in mind that our war mission is distinctly naval, although amphibious. It should, therefore, be our policy to train, organize, and distribute the Marine Corps in such a way that there will be available as soon after M day as the Fleet is ready, a Marine expeditionary force, trained and equipped for the functions herein described.

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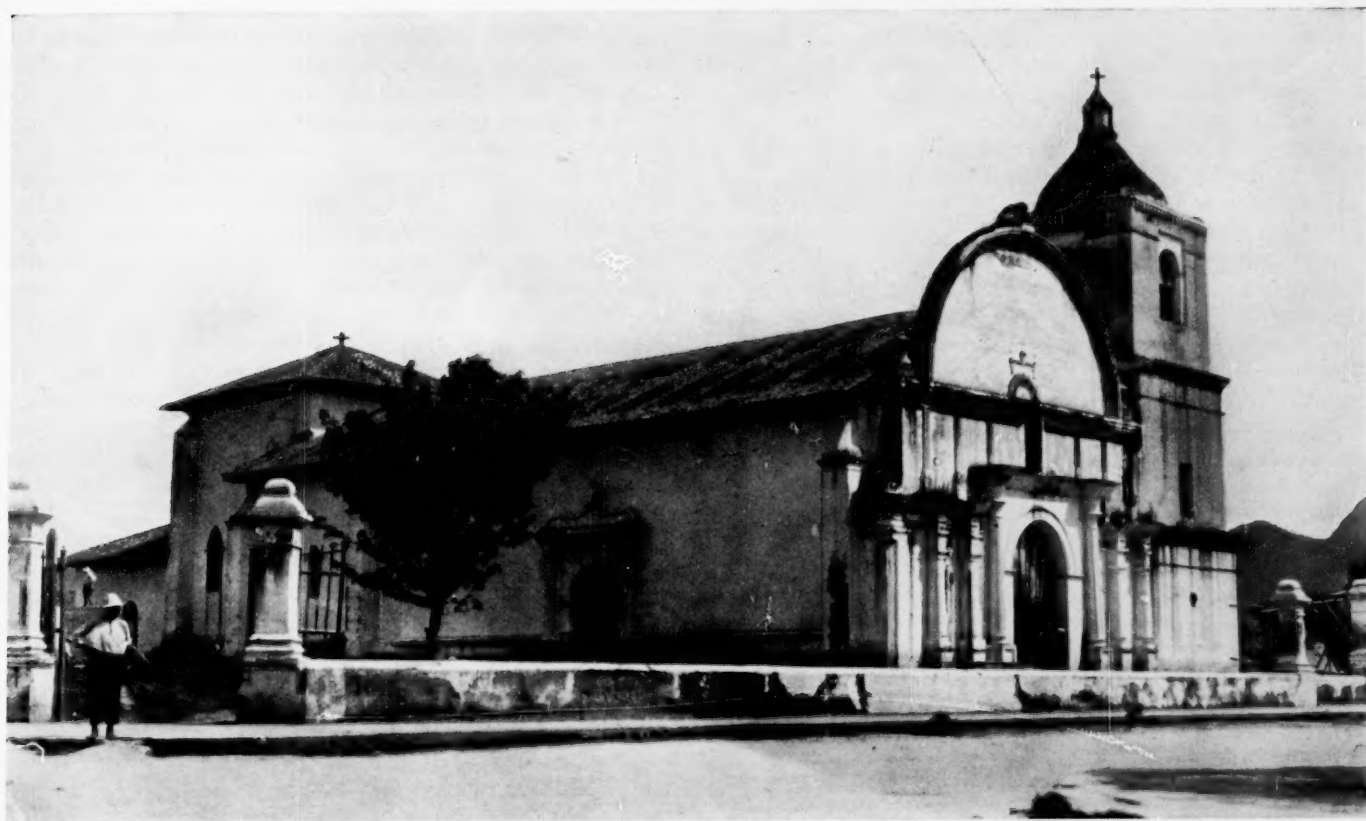


Photo by Major McClellan

Church in Ocotal From Which Sandinistas Fired on Marines on July 16, 1927

## The Nueva Segovia Expedition

By MAJOR EDWIN NORTH McCLELLAN, U. S. Marine Corps.

"BEST information is that there is some danger of increase of size of Sandino's bandit force. Reliably informed that he has taken possession of San Albino Mine, property of an American citizen. On request of the President (Diaz) and with advice of the American Minister (Eberhardt), I am forming tentative plans for operations against Sandino. Intend to use a force of Guardia Nacional in great part temporarily enrolled for this duty. The operations to be directed by Marine Officers with small force of Marines cooperating, also Aviation. My plan is to occupy successively the towns which he is now controlling, forcing him to the north and east. This does not in any way affect the plan for reduction of Marine Force." That was a report that Brigadier-General Feland made on June 30, 1927, to Rear-Admiral Julian L. Latimer, who had left Nicaragua on June 13, and was down in the Panama Canal Zone.

Rear-Admiral Latimer radioed Naval Operations on July 2 from the Canal Zone that Brigadier-General "Feland informed me that there is some danger of Sandino increasing his force. The San Albino Mine, owned by an American, has been reported taken by Sandino," so I "have directed Feland to inaugurate operations to disarm Sandino as soon as possible." On the same date Rear Admiral Latimer radio-ordered Brigadier-General

Feland to "inaugurate operations as soon as possible to disarm Sandino and his band" but "satisfy yourself as to reliability any units of Guardia Nacional used in these operations."

Rear Admiral Latimer, on a later date, explained to a Senate Committee that after Sandino had visited Telpaneca early in June of 1927 and robbed a German business house he "thought, as the Nicaraguans had no arms left with which they could preserve order in their country, that it would be about time that we started after Sandino. He had been given every opportunity to lay down his arms." It was then that "I gave orders that the force which we had at Ocotal should go after Sandino." These were the orders that were radioed to Brigadier General Feland on July 2.

In his letter of July 18, Secretary of State Kellogg wrote that his Department had been informed that when Sandino had entered the San Albino Mine Rear Admiral Latimer had directed Brigadier General Feland "to inaugurate operations to disarm Sandino as soon as possible."

Six days after he had ordered the Marines to disarm Sandino, Rear Admiral Latimer was relieved by Rear Admiral David S. Sellers on July 8, aboard the *Rochester* at Balboa. American Minister Eberhardt radioed Rear

Admiral Latimer a "pleasant trip," a "happy home reunion" and "every other good wish to you and yours, and may we meet again soon." On July 8, Brigadier General Feland radioed Rear Admiral Latimer that "on eve of your going I send you my best wishes and the cordial greetings of the Brigade."

President Calvin Coolidge through Secretary of the Navy Curtis D. Wilbur conferred the Distinguished Service Medal upon Rear Admiral Julian L. Latimer "for exceptional meritorious service in a duty of great responsibility as Commander of the Special Service Squadron, from 30 May 1925 to 8 July 1927, in handling with the greatest skill and diplomacy the many delicate situations which arose in Nicaragua during that period."

While the menace of Sandino was thus causing orders for his being "disarmed forcibly" and while plans were being prepared to carry out that order, other plans were being actually executed to send a regiment of Marines home from Nicaragua. In view of the plan to send the 11th Regiment home the Marines of that Regiment on duty in Ocotal were replaced by 5th Regiment personnel. On June 27 a section of the 16th Company, 3rd Battalion, 5th Regiment, replaced a section of the 11th Regiment. Other substitutions followed. And so it continued with Sandino plotting his attack on Ocotal.

On the first of July in Northern Nicaragua there were Marine garrisons at Matagalpa, Jinotega, San Rafael del Norte, Esteli and Ocotal. On the same date the *Argonne* with about 30 officers and 511 Marines sailed for the United States.

On July 1, Colonel Randolph C. Berkeley relieved Major Floyd as Brigadier Executive, the latter having been selected to command the expedition to disarm Sandino.

In obedience to Rear Admiral Latimer's order of July 2, to "disarm Sandino and his band" the "Nueva Segovia Expedition" was organized.

Brigadier General Feland, on July 3, wrote:

"Duly constituted civil authority is being rapidly re-established and becoming effective throughout Western Nicaragua. But one Sandino, acting under no recognized sanction, has declared himself ruler over, and with an armed band is preventing the re-establishment of civil government within, Eastern Nueva Segovia." There "are at Ocotal two officers and thirty-nine men of this Brigade." A "detachment of fifty men, Guardia Nacional, commanded by a Marine Officer, enroute from Managua, will arrive at Ocotal about 15 July 27." (They arrived July 11.). An "Expedition will be sent to Eastern Nueva Segovia to disarm Sandino and his band." Immediate "steps will be taken to organize the Expedition at Matagalpa in readiness to march on Telpaneca." The "Marine Detachment and Guardia Nacional at Ocotal will be prepared to operate against Sandino from the West, under direction of Expedition Commander, when communication has been established." The "Air Service will cooperate with, and support, the troops."

Major Oliver Floyd was designated to command this expedition. The troops were to be approximately 75 enlisted Marines and approximately 150 Guardia Nacional "to be recruited and organized at Matagalpa" from where the expedition would start.

Major Victor F. Bleasdale (Captain U. S. M. C.), an officer of the Guardia Nacional, was detailed to command the Guardia personnel that formed part of this expedition.

General Feland reported:

"Plans were already made and active preparations for

the organization, equipment and despatch of the combined force. This work was entrusted to Major Oliver Floyd, who was to have command of the expedition. This officer had been Brigade Executive and was more familiar with the policy to be pursued and was more imbued with the idea of avoiding combat as far as possible, of depriving Sandino of his territory by pressure of occupying the towns successively which were controlled by Sandino, in short, Major Floyd was thoroughly and entirely in accord with the policy of arriving at a peaceable disarmament of the Sandino forces, if in any way possible, and was selected for that reason."

On July 6 the Brigade ordered the Commanding Officer of the 5th Regiment as follows:

"Please issue necessary orders to Commanding Officer, Third Battalion, Fifth Regiment, at Matagalpa, Nicaragua, to have a detachment of three officers and sixty-five Marines, held in readiness to leave Matagalpa about July 15 with the Nueva Segovia Expedition, commanded by Major Oliver Floyd.

"This detachment will be equipped with full proportion of automatic rifles and two machine guns.

"Rations for seventy-five enlisted men of the Marine Corps for thirty days, will be furnished from the supply at Matagalpa and the necessary bull cart and pack transportation therefor will be provided by Major Floyd from the animals being assembled at Matagalpa under his direction.

"Immediate steps will be taken to assemble a second supply of thirty days' rations for the above detachment to provide for the automatic supply of the expedition after the first ration supply has been shipped. Any additional bull carts and pack animals not required by Major Floyd, will be retained at Matagalpa and supplemented by additional bull carts and pack animals either rented or at present the property of the United States, to make up an adequate train for this second movement. This second train should leave Matagalpa not later than fifteen days after the original outfit leaves and proceed via Jinotega-San Rafael to Palacaguina where it will await the relay train which will be sent back from Major Floyd's column. Upon turning over the supplies to Major Floyd's train, the second train will return to Matagalpa and be held pending further instructions from these headquarters. A report of departure of this second train will be made to these headquarters.

"A guard of one corporal and four men will be detailed with the second supply train and returned to Matagalpa upon delivering of the supplies.

"Commanding Officers of all Detachments along the route of march will be directed to lend every possible assistance to the Air Service in carrying out their part of the Expedition."

The personnel and material to form this Expedition were assembled at Matagalpa.

In addition to Major Bleasdale, Captain Lloyd R. Pugh (First Lieutenant, U. S. M. C.) and Dr. John B. O'Neill (Lieutenant, Medical Corps, U. S. Navy) were detailed from the Guardia Nacional for duty with the Guardia detachment in this expedition.

Except for those three guardia officers, there were no Guardias available for the Expedition. The new Guardia Nacional had been started on May 12 by Lieutenant-Colonel Robert Y. Rhea, continued under Major Harold C. Pierce until July 11, when Lieutenant-Colonel Elias R. Beadle succeeded him.

The 1st Company, Guardia Nacional, commanded by



First Lieutenant Grover C. Darnall, had left Managua on July 1 for Ocotal. (It arrived there July 11.) The remainder of the Guardia was stationed at places where they were very necessary. So it was decided to hastily recruit Provisional Guardias in Matagalpa, Boaco and several other towns.

The question of arming, clothing and equipping the Guardias came up. Major Bleasdale picked out 165 Krag rifles from the 10,000 Krags turned in by the Conservative and Liberal armies, two Lewis machine guns, and a sufficient quantity of ammunition. Captain Pugh found sufficient clothing and equipment among the old Conservative war supplies. The uniform was that of the old Conservative army.

Major Floyd accepted several recruits in Managua for the Guardia element of the expedition. Among them were several ex-Conservative officers, several Lewis machine gunners, and two telegraph operators.

Jefes Politico (Governors) of the Departments in which the towns were situated received instructions to encourage this recruiting. These Guardias were eventually formed into one company at Matagalpa.

On July 5, Major Bleasdale with ten enlisted Marines as guard for the bull cart convoy from Tipitapa to Matagalpa departed Managua by truck for Tipitapa. Major Bleasdale returned the same night.

At 7:00 a.m. on July 6, Major Floyd, Major Bleasdale and Captain Kieren and Second Lieutenant McQuade departed Managua by truck for Tipitapa. Major Bleasdale returned to Managua at 10:40 p.m. At 4:30 p.m. Major Bleasdale with four enlisted Marines departed Managua for Tipitapa to act as bull cart guard from Tipitapa to Matagalpa.

At 8:00 a.m., July 7, the pack train and section of (the Nueva Segovia) Expedition under Major Floyd with Captain Kieren, Captain Pugh, Dr. O'Neill, with 43 enlisted, 27 natives, 31 mules and 71 horses, cleared Tipitapa en route to Matagalpa. At 10:45 p.m., "Lieutenant McQuade with six enlisted as guard for bull cart convoy of 10 carts, 41 bulls, one horse, two mules and 16 natives departed Tipitapa for Matagalpa."

On July 8, at 3:00 a.m., Major Bleasdale with five enlisted Marines (bull cart guard) with convoy of three bull carts, 20 bulls, 15 horses, one mule, and 19 natives, cleared Tipitapa for Matagalpa.

Major Floyd on July 8 reported to Brigadier General Feland:

"Except for one unserviceable horse I arrived in Dario at 4:00 p.m. today. Men in good condition but consider that only about twenty-five animals will be able to stand the expedition. Officers' patrol working north from Sebaco yesterday reports that recent scare is due to very small groups of armed men collecting in that vicinity and then continuing northward, therefore there is no tactical reason for the men with me continue further. These men were ordered by 5th Regiment to report here at Dario, but I recommend that they continue with me to Matagalpa as Martin states that he does not need them here. I personally leave here for Matagalpa ninth instant."

On July 9, at 7:00 a.m., "Major Floyd and Captain Kieren departed Dario for Matagalpa, arriving there at 6:30 p.m." At 12:30 p.m., Lieutenant Fox and Captain Pugh, "with men and animal train of Major Floyd's Expedition, departed Dario for Sebaco, arriving at Sebaco at 4:15 p.m., and spending the night at that place."



Photo by Major McClellan

**The Nueva Segovia Expedition Passed Through Esteli and Saw the Rocks on Which Are Carved Ancient Inscriptions Yet To Be Deciphered**

Lieutenant "McQuade with six enlisted (bull cart guard) and convoy arrived Dario from Tipitapa," at 1:30 p.m. At 6:15 p.m., Major Bleasdale with bull cart convoy arrived Dario from Tipitapa. Major Bleasdale and Lieutenant McQuade to join convoys.

On July 10 Bleasdale and McQuade with bull cart convoys departed Dario for Matagalpa at 9:30 a.m. On July 11, at 10:45 a.m. the last of Major Floyd's column, Major Bleasdale's bull cart train and armed escort arrived at Matagalpa.

Major Floyd had an assembly, in Matagalpa on July 11, at 11:00 a.m., of all Nicaraguans that were to be considered for the Guardia companies of the Expedition. About 150 men assembled and were formed in two ranks. The *Jefe Politico* (Governor) of Matagalpa had recruited most of the men. They were all supposed to be volunteers but it was suspected that the men from the Indian pueblos had been drafted. There were a few Spaniards and Spanish-Indians among them but the majority were full-blooded Indians from Indian communities near Matagalpa. The recruits ranged all the way from ignorant Indian boys with no military experience to a grey-headed Ex-General from the Conservative army. Several of the group were property owners and substantial citizens that wished to assist in crushing Sandino so the North could return to normalcy and permit them to engage in their peacetime pursuits safely. Most of the full-blooded Indians looked like a hopeless lot in as far as making soldiers of them was concerned; but it was later ascertained that this view was incorrect. The ignorant Indians from the interior of the mountains and jungle areas were stoic-looking people because their faces were so blank and expressionless; but continued observation of them forced the conclusion that they had much more common sense and natural cunningness than the Anglo-Saxon credits them with. When trained and well-led they make good guerrilla warfare soldiers and many of them are fearless in battle.



At 3:00 p.m. Major Floyd called a conference of all the American officers attached to the expedition and explained his final plans.

Due to the apparent hopelessness of making a useful military organization in such a short time out of the ignorant Indian applicants it was decided to form only one company of Guardia and to do this by picking out the fifty best men among the applicants for soldiers and to hire men from other sources for duty as *muleros*. The principal reason for the forming of this company was to have Nicaraguan troops participate in the Expedition so that it would be a combined operation of Marine and Nicaraguans against Sandino in accordance with the wishes of the Nicaraguan Government. It was expected that the Marines would bear the brunt of the fighting, if not all of it. The situation was such that Major Bleasdale could not enlist the men in the Regular Guardia Nacional de Nicaragua as he did not have the facilities for completing physical examinations, service record books, pay rolls, muster rolls and the other paper work connected with the Guardia which is quite similar to that in the Marine Corps. Another thing that bothered him was that he did not know what the future reputation of this hastily organized group of Nicaraguans would be so he wished to keep them and their future record separate from the Regular Guardia. To do this, he named his company the First Company, Provisional Guardia, and referred to the personnel as Provisional Guardias.

The First Provisional Guardia Company was organized as follows: Major Bleasdale, Commanding Officer; Captain Pugh, Second-in-Command; Captain Guillermo E. Arana, Third-in-Command; and Adjutant Jose Manuel Mencia, Mess Officer (an ex-General of the late Conservative army.)

Two rifle sections and one Lewis machine gun section, each section consisting of two squads and commanded by a lieutenant. The three lieutenants were all ex-colonels of the late Conservative Army. A *mulero* section of two *mulero jefes* and 18 *muleros*.

Major Bleasdale appointed all the Nicaraguan officers and non-commissioned officers orally and published their appointments orally to the company. Major Bleasdale kept all service record, pay roll, muster roll data associated with the personnel of company in one small book.

The arming and equipping of the Provisional Guardia was a simple matter. Each man received a Krag rifle, two bandoliers of ammunition (120 rounds) two suits of blue dungarees, a straw hat, a pair of shoes or sandals, a tin canteen, and two small bags for carrying rations, ammunition, etc., and three thin blankets. When outfitted as above the men looked like the soldiers in the Conservative Army (Government) that fought against the revolutionists (Liberals) under Moncada.

The Regular Guardia and Provisional Guardia strength of the Nueva Segovia Expedition as it cleared Matagalpa was as follows: Three Regular Guardia Officers; 4 Provisional Guardia Officers; 50 Provisional Guardias; 20 Provisional Guardia *Muleros*. These above figures do not include bullwhackers, guides, etc., that were with the Expedition at different times and for various periods.

Major Bleasdale was the Executive Officer of the Expedition and the Commanding Officer of the Provisional Guardia troops.

The "Nueva Segovia Expedition" passed from the Brigade to the 5th Regiment by Operation Order No. 39 of the Brigade reading as follows:

"The Nueva Segovia Expedition having been organized and started out of Matagalpa under the command of Major Oliver Floyd, the further operation of the Expedition hereby passes to the command of the 5th Regiment."

On July 15 the Nueva Segovia Expedition left Matagalpa. In addition to Major Floyd and the Guardia officers already named, it consisted of First Lieutenants Daniel R. Fox and George J. O'Shea, 75 Marines, 74 Provisional Guardias (Nicaraguans), 19 horses, 172 mules, 4 bull carts, and 24 bulls. It cleared three miles south of Matagalpa en route for Esteli. The route planned was Sebaco, Trinidad and Esteli.

Sandino had knowledge of the approach of Floyd's Expedition. He wrote to General Echeverria that he had "just received a warning from San Rafael from my own wife that one hundred Constabularies are coming by that way."

It would appear that Sandino, with an effective grapevine intelligence system, must have known that the Floyd Expedition was getting under way. He surely must have heard prior to his attack of July 16th on Ocotal that it was being organized at Matagalpa. It was quite probable that he was aware of it having left Matagalpa on July 15th for Esteli. While this expedition was being organized at Matagalpa the Marines got word to Sandino that an unarmed Marine Officer would meet at any time and place he selected. Sandino spurned this offered parley and later, on July 16th, attacked Ocotal.

Sandino had heard that Noguera Gomez, a former Conservative General from Chontales, would join the forces to attack him. According to the below letter he believed he was coming north with the Floyd Column.

On July 4 Sandino, at Jicaro, wrote to General Manuel Echeverrias, at San Albino, to send him "one hundred pounds of powder, 300 primers, 200 feet of fuse, four steel bars and the hand bombs," as he needed them "to decorate the bed where the brave General Noguera Gomez, who is coming with two hundred men to disarm us, is going to sleep.

"Look for some motor oil yourself and send me one gallon, or what you can, in order to clean the rifles and the machine-guns," continued Sandino. "I also give you notice that Parajon, Miller, Plata and *Pichingo* (Simon Jiron) are coming to join us. So what will be of poor Noguera Gomez. Either he will go to the cemetery or he will be used as buzzard's food."

The original plan had been for Major Floyd to advance into the disturbed area by first occupying Telpaneca, one of the larger of the little towns which were frequently raided by the rebels. The attack on Ocotal forced a change in this plan.

The Expedition arrived at Trinidad July 16 and camped there. At about 6:15 p.m., July 16, there was some desultory rifle fire from the surrounding hills, which fire evidently was directed at the troops in the town; one house about two thousand yards away appeared to be the source of most of these shots; fifty rounds of machine-gun fire were placed on that house which resulted in silencing all hostile fire. The first shot fired by Sandinistas at American Marines preceded this firing by exactly 17 hours for, although Major Floyd did not know it at the time his men were fired on, Sandino had fired on the Ocotal Marines at 1:15 a.m. that date.

On July 17, while Major Floyd was still in Trinidad, he received the following important information and in-

structions: That Sandino had attacked Ocotal on July 16; that his column had passed to the command of the 5th Regiment as of July 16; that he would expedite sending forward a strong mounted detachment to Ocotal; that a small pack train under Lieutenant McQuade, occupying a defensive position near Condega, would await the arrival of this mounted detachment, which would escort it to Ocotal.

Lieutenant McQuade, at Condega, was informed of the attack on Ocotal and he was to "take up a defensive position near Condega and await the arrival of Major Floyd's Column moving on the Trinidad-Esteli-Condega Road."

In view of Major Floyd's recommendation, the fifty mounted men were not despatched as ordered.

Major Floyd led his Column out of Trinidad on July 17. He left behind eight Marines to guard eight bull carts. Also twenty Provisional Guardias under a Provisional Guardia Lieutenant (Nicaraguan) to restore and maintain law and order and to guard the bulk of the Provisional Guardia supplies left there. He reported that the "Provisional Guardia was quite a burden."

The Column arrived in Esteli after dark, July 17, and remained in Esteli the whole of July 18 completing its arrangements for the march to Ocotal. A few Marines who appeared unfit for further hard marching were replaced from the detachment at Esteli; the use of bull carts was discontinued.

On the 18th Major Floyd reported that Lieutenant O'Shea, with 16 mounted men and 15 days' supplies, would leave Esteli to join Lieutenant McQuade at Condega early the 19th and escort his pack train to Ocotal; that Major Floyd intended marching with his Marines the same day on Palacaguina; that he would take with him "thirty-seven Provisional Guardias mostly acting as *muleros*," and that "remainder of Provisional Guardia (less the 21 left in Trinidad) has deserted."

Lieutenant McQuade was informed that Major Floyd had been instructed to take him into Ocotal and that "it is important that you remain at Condega until the arrival of Floyd's Column."

Early July 19, a mounted detachment of 50 Marines, with equipment and supplies reduced to a minimum, left Esteli for Ocotal. This detachment was followed by the remainder of the command, which included the Provisional Guardia and the train.

Late July 19 the mounted detachment reached and



The Colors of the Nicaraguan National Guard

camped with the small train at Condega; the detachment then escorted that train to Ocotal, where it arrived July 21. The remainder of the Expedition arrived at Ocotal July 22. The entire movement from Esteli to Ocotal was without incident. Condega, Yalaguina, and Totogalpa were found deserted and practically stripped of all moveable property. Pueblo Nuevo had not been looted.

Everything was found quiet in Ocotal, and the Marines there had no definite or reliable information as to where Sandino was.

The arrival of Floyd's Expedition at Ocotal gave a much needed rest to the garrison, which was weary from being constantly on the alert in anticipation of a renewal of the attack. The town was searched for arms and ammunition, the inhabitants were forced to disclose some of the wounded bandits who had been hidden by them, and these men were given proper medical attention. The inhabitants of Ocotal were warned to keep clear of any future hostilities which might be brought on by the Sandinistas.



Photo by Major McClellan

Matagalpa, Where the Nueva Segovia Expedition Was Organized

(To be continued)



# The American Marines of "Old Ironsides"

By THE HISTORIAN.

THE year 1794 produced the first legislation since the end of the Revolution authorizing Marines.

Early in that year energetic measures were taken to create the "New Navy" to protect our commerce from the Corsairs of Algiers. A Committee on Naval Affairs reported to the House on January 20, 1794, that it was of the opinion that four 24-gun ships would be "sufficient to protect the commerce of the United States against the Algerine corsairs."

On February 6th a debate occurred in Congress on a resolution for building four 44-gun ships and two 20-gun ships, to protect our commerce against the Algerines. The foreign policies of the various European countries and their effect upon the policy of Algiers was not an unimportant part of the debate. Many believed, as did Mr. Madison, that it would be better to buy a cessation of hostilities from the Regency of Algiers than to fight. Mr. Clark suggested that we hire the Portuguese to cruise against the Algerines. He had an objection to the establishment of a fleet because they must then have a Secretary of the Navy and a swarm of other people in office, at a monstrous expense. Mr. Baldwin believed that bribery alone could purchase security from the Algerines, and that Spain and Britain had always found this method the cheapest. Mr.

Nicholas feared we were no match for the Algerines by sea. However there were many warm advocates of naval defence and the majority believed that if public funds were to be spent, a part at least should be expended for a Navy.

President George Washington urged Congress, on March 3, 1794, to authorize a naval force to protect our commerce, and on March 27th he approved a bill passed by Congress that conditionally authorized the construction of six frigates, three of 44 guns and three of 36 guns. Each of these ships was to carry a Lieutenant of Marines. The 44-gun ships were authorized to carry "one sergeant, one corporal, one drum, one fife, and fifty Marines," while the 36-gun ships were authorized to carry "one sergeant, two corporals, one drum, one fife, and forty Marines." The allotment of only one corporal to each of the larger ships was an error, as two were intended, and the error was legislatively corrected.

The pay of the Lieutenant of Marines was set at

\$26.00 a month and two rations per day, while the President was authorized to establish the rates of pay of the other Marines.

The last section of the Act made all its provisions conditional. That iniquitous section was that "if a peace shall take place between the United States and the Regency of Algiers," no "farther proceedings be had under this act."

The six frigates authorized were the *Constitution* (44), *President* (44), *United States* (44), *Chesapeake* (36), *Congress* (36), and *Constellation* (36).

Thus in 1794 the authorized strength of the Marines was 6 lieutenants, 6 sergeants, 12 corporals, 6 drummers, 6 fifers, and 280 privates, or a total of 316 Marines.

Captains of the Navy were designated to command these six frigates with additional duties of superintending their construction. Captain Samuel Nicholson was assigned to the *Constitution*, to be built at Boston. Her construction was under the jurisdiction of the Department of War.

On September 25, 1795, a "firm and sincere peace and amity between the United States of North America, and Hassan Bashaw, Dey of Algiers, his Divan and subjects," was concluded. It was a splendid treaty except for the last paragraph, in which the "Dey and Divan" promises

to observe all the treaty provisions "on consideration of the United States paying annually the value of 12,000 Algerine sequins in maritime stores."

This treaty provision resuscitated the last section of the Act of 1794. President George Washington, on March 15, 1796, accordingly recommended to the "Gentlemen of the Senate and House of Representatives," that the construction of the six vessels conditionally authorized be suspended; but he also urged the necessity of immediate legislation to make possible the completion of the building program suspended by the Treaty.

On January 29, 1796, a House Committee reported to the House that only two of the six frigates should be completed—this even before the treaty had been proclaimed.

While the "Infant Navy" was thus struggling for an existence, the interference by France with American commerce had been increasing most annoyingly. The possibility of open rupture between the two



Illustration by A. T. Manookian

"SHALL I BOARD HER, SIR?"  
Asked Lieut. Bush of Capt. Hull



countries had been kept constantly before Congress by President Washington. Senator Bingham's Committee reported to the Senate on March 17, 1796, its opinion, that it would be expedient to authorize the President "to cause to be completed, with all convenient expedition, two of the said frigates of forty-four, and one of thirty-six guns."

Accordingly, Congress enacted legislation which was approved by President Washington on April 20, 1796, authorizing the President to continue the construction and equipment, with all convenient expedition, of two 44-gun frigates and one 36-gun frigate. These were the *United States* (44), *Constitution* (44), and *Constellation* (36). This Act continued the strength of the Marine Guards as set in the Act of 1794 and the legislative strength of the Marines of this period was therefore 3 sergeants, 6 corporals, 3 drummers, 3 fifiers, and 140 privates—a total of 158.

The estimates of the Department of War of the sums necessary to complete the frigates *United States*, *Constitution* and *Constellation*, submitted on December 29, 1796, included: 3 first lieutenants of Marines at \$26.00 per month; 3 sergeants of Marines at \$10.00 per month; 6 corporals at \$10.00 per month; 3 drummers and 3 fifiers at \$9.00 per month, and 140 privates at \$9.00 per month. Lieutenants of Marines one ration per day.

During the period of construction of these three vessels, Marines were used to guard them. The exact date of the first commission given a Marine officer or the date of the first Marine enlisted is not known.

John Adams succeeded George Washington as President on March 4, 1797. On May 16, 1797, President Adams urged Congress to provide a Navy, stating that "a naval power, next to the militia, is the natural defence of the United States."

Matters slowly dragged along and on June 16, 1797, Secretary of War James McHenry submitted another estimate of the pay and subsistence required for the three frigates under construction. As far as the Marines were concerned, these estimates were the same as those submitted in 1796.

Congress finally became concerned with the urgency of defence by means of a Navy and passed important legislation which President John Adams approved on July 1, 1797.

This Act expressly directed that the *United States* and *Constitution* should each carry two Lieutenants of Marines, and the *Constellation* one Lieutenant of Marines. The two larger ships were each authorized to carry "three sergeants, three corporals, one drum, one fife, and fifty Marines." The smaller frigate was authorized to carry "two sergeants, three corporals, one drum, one fife, and forty Marines." The Lieutenants of Marines received \$30.00 per month and two rations per day. The pay of the other Marines was fixed by the President. It was ordered that the officers, crew and Marines, "shall be governed by the Rules for the Regulation of the Navy" established by Congress on November 28, 1775. The enlistment period was one year, but the President, in his judgment, could issue discharges sooner. And the enlistments could be extended.

Under the Act of July 1, 1797, the legislative strength of the Marines was therefore: 5 lieutenants, 8 sergeants, 8 corporals, 3 drummers, 3 fifiers, and 140 privates.

The *United States* was launched in July, 1797; the *Constellation* in September, and the *Constitution* in

October. Some of the personnel of these vessels, including *Marines*, were serving on board before they were launched. The records are not clear as to the earliest date that Marines reported on these vessels, but we know that they were serving on board the *United States* as early as January 4, 1797.

The subject of equitable compensation rates for the enlisted Marines and the sailors caused President Adams considerable effort. The War Office, on December 27, 1797, requested Captain Samuel Nicholson, commanding the *Constitution*, to inform it "at what pay Marines may be enlisted without bounty, and the wages at which a Crew of Seamen can be engaged, and in what time the complement of both can be completed."

On January 15, 1798, the Secretary of War wrote Captain Nicholson that "the President having taken into his consideration the pay of the petty Officers, Seamen, ordinary Seamen and Marines to enable him to fix it at the lowest prices, it becomes necessary that the best information should be obtained from those Ports where the frigates will be manned," he would "be much obliged" if Captain Nicholson would transmit to him "as early as possible" what sailors were receiving at Boston.

President Adams finally established the monthly pay rates of the Marines as follows: Sergeants and corporals, \$10.00; the drummers, fifiers, and privates, \$9.00. But in a letter dated May 7, 1798, to Lieutenant John Rodgers at Baltimore, the Secretary of War gave the rates of pay for Marines: Sergeants, \$9.00 per month; corporals, \$8.00 per month; drummers and fifiers, \$7.00 per month, and privates, \$6.00 per month. The Lieutenants of Marines monthly pay, as established by Congress, was \$26.00. Thus the monthly Marine payroll of the *Constitution* was \$554.00.

The Archives have, so far, only inadequately divulged the names of the Marine Officers commissioned and the Marines enlisted during the period prior to July 11, 1798.

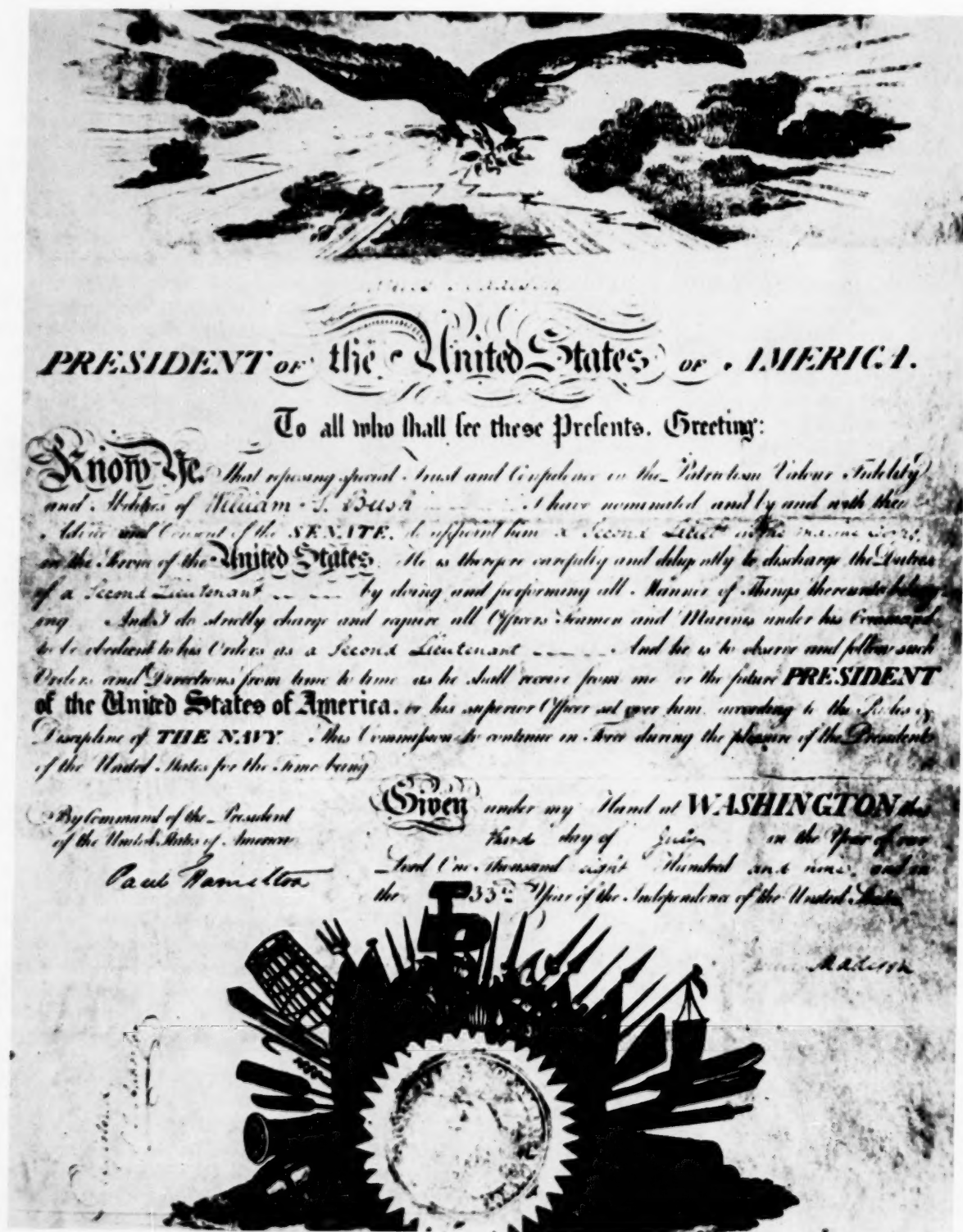
The uniform worn by these pre-Corps Marines was prescribed by Secretary of War James McHenry on August 24, 1797. The officers wore long blue coats, red lined, with long, red lapels, standing collars, slash sleeves with red cuffs, skirts and pocket flaps; red vests and blue breeches. The coats were lavishly trimmed with buttons of yellow metal carrying a foul anchor and an American Eagle. Nine buttons appeared on the lapels, one on the standing collars, and three on the slash sleeves.

Lieutenants commanding a guard wore a gold epaulet on the right shoulder, and the junior Marine officer, if there was one, wore his gold epaulet on the left shoulder. In full-dress the Marine officers wore cocked hats with black cockades, and small yellow-mounted swords. The order stated that swords for undress uniform would be prescribed at a later date.

The enlisted Marines wore plain, short coats of blue edged and turned up with red, common small naval buttons, a red belt, red vest, and blue pantaloons edged with red. In summer they wore white linen overalls.

Up to April 30, 1798, the affairs of the Marines were conducted by the Department of War. However, on the foregoing date the Navy Department was created.

On May 28, 1798, while a resolution to create a Marine Corps was being discussed in the House of Representatives, Mr. Gallatin asked how many Marines would be wanted on board the naval vessels. He was informed that the *Constitution* and *United States* would each require 50 Marines.



First Commission of Lieutenant William S. Bush, of the Marines, Who Was Killed in Action Aboard the Constitution.



Congress having passed a series of acts authorizing naval expenditures and providing for coast defenses, on May 28th, 1798, authorized the seizure of French armed vessels that had committed hostile acts upon our coasts or should be hovering in the neighborhood with hostile intentions. It also authorized the recapture of American vessels that had been captured by the French. The administration lost no time in acting upon this authorization, and passed on instructions to this effect to commanders of naval ships the same day. Privateers were also used in this war.

While there were plenty of Marines there was no Corps. On July 11, 1798, during this Naval War with France, Congress created the United States Marine Corps and Major William War Burrows as the first Commandant.

The glory of being the first to get to sea under the Constitution went to the *Ganges*. Her Marine officer was Captain Daniel Carmick.

In those good old days each ship opened its own recruiting stations. On May 18, 1799, the Secretary of the Navy directed Captain Samuel Nicholson "to open rendezvouses for recruiting a crew for the *Constitution*," and informed him that he "allowed besides Officers of Marines and 44 Privates which will be supplied you by the Major of the Marine Corps, and your Commissioned and petty Officers, the latter of which you will appoint, not exceeding 300 men and boys, exclusive of Marines."

Lemuel Clark was appointed Lieutenant of Marines on July 6, 1798, to serve on the *Constitution*, but whether or not he actually served on her as the first Marine officer is not known today.

The records seem to indicate that Captain Lemuel Clark had Lieutenant William Amory as his junior officer on the *Constitution*. Lieutenant Amory was relieved by Lieutenant Cotton Thayer who, while serving on board the *Constitution* on June 25, 1799, was confirmed as a Second Lieutenant in which office he had been acting since December 27, 1798. This matter of having appointments of officers confirmed and forwarding them their commissions was important to all of them.

On August 18, 1799, Captain Daniel Carmick wrote to his Commandant from Hampton Roads on board the *Constitution* that he had received his "commission the day after my arrival here inclosed to Captain Talbot. Had it not arrived I certainly should not have gone to sea in the ship."

The stations of the Marines differed according to the ideas of the captains and the characteristics of the ship. Captain Truxton had them on the quarter-deck. On the *Constitution*, however, only fifteen out of fifty-nine were stationed there. But the quarters of the *Constitution* were so high that the men could not fire over them and Captain Talbot had the Marines who were not on the quarter-deck stationed at the great guns, but under their own officers. Captain Carmick yearned to exchange his station for "the command of a few great guns."

On August 18, 1799, Captain Carmick wrote to his Commandant:

"I propose, Sir, you will not permit every Captain that chooses to take the Marines where ever they can catch them. I have got the Marines on board this ship in a fair way to becoming responsible. I permit them to do no kind of work that will tar their clothes, the officers of the Ship do not interfere with my men and had they been clean when they came on board they would have been

decent for some time yet. I have taken up clothing and mean to distribute them and charge them, as there is no other way of making them decent. I this evening had a little difference with the Officer-of-the-Deck respecting the Tattoo, but carried my points."

The *Constitution* served against the French in the West Indies. While in West Indian waters, it was the custom of the American warship, including the *Constitution*, to entertain Toussaint L'Ouverture, of Haiti, and his officers.

On March 22, 1800, Lieutenant Colonel Commandant Burrows wrote Captain Carmick who was on the *Constitution* that he was "very happy to hear you and your men are so well, and more so to know that you and your Captain are on harmonious terms. There can be no danger of its being otherwise, when the Commander is a Gentleman, and Captain Talbot bears that name. I am also very happy to hear that Amory is got well; before he returns, I expect he will be a First Lieutenant."

In May of 1800 occurred one of the most stirring events of the war. This was the cutting out of the *Sandwich*, a French letter of marque, from under the guns of the fort at Puerto Plata, Santo Domingo. Commodore Talbot manned the sloop *Sally* at sea from the *Constitution* with about ninety Marines and Bluejackets. Captain Daniel Carmick and First Lieutenant William Amory officered the Marines. Commodore Talbot directed that Lieutenant Isaac Hull, of the Navy, should command the expedition afloat but that on shore Captain Carmick should be in command.

On May 11th, at about noon, the *Sally* entered the harbor of Puerto Plata and ran alongside the *Sandwich*. Everybody except one officer remained below until they received orders to board from the observing officer on deck. After being cooped up in the small vessel for twelve hours "the men went on board like devils," reported Captain Carmick, "and it was as much as the First Lieutenant and myself could do to prevent blood being spilt."

After the *Sandwich* was captured, the Marines waded to the beach in water "up to their necks" and spiked all the cannon in the fort before its commanding officer had time to prepare for defense, or to obtain help from the city. It was a quick job, Captain Carmick's Marines being back on board the *Sandwich* in about an hour from the time she was captured. The ship was soon in order, men stationed at cannon, and the Marines ready "to oppose all their forces," which was understood to be five hundred men. Captain Carmick reported that the exploit, cooped up in a small vessel for twelve hours put him "in mind of the wooden horse at Troy." The *Sandwich* was taken out next morning and joined the *Constitution*.

Captain Talbot expressed great gratitude to his three officers "for their avidity in undertaking to execute this enterprize, and for the handsome manner in which they performed this brave and daring undertaking." This was a spectacular affair, but in accomplishing it the neutrality of a Spanish port had been violated, and after the prize had been sent to New York it had to be given up.

The Commandant wrote to Captain Lemuel Clark on May 23, 1800, that "Captain Carmick when he arrives will want to come and see his Family and Lieutenant Amory's health will require his being on shore," and "in that case you will take the Command of the Marines



on board the *Constitution* and take Lieutenant Thayer with you."

On September 16, 1800, the Commandant wrote Captain Carmick: "I hope the Marines will not fall off after you leave them; it is my wish they should do credit to the Ship as well as the Corps, and I hope you will convey my Sentiments to Captain Talbot, who I have a high opinion of, and let him know I always expect an Officer to be with such a body of men."

On July 24, 1800, the Commandant ordered Lieutenant Amory to New York to relieve Lieutenant Reddick on the *Adams*, but his orders were rescinded. On October 9, he was ordered to the *Trumbull* but his orders were again rescinded and he was ordered to the Philadelphia barracks. Again his orders were rescinded and eventually he reported to New London for duty.

During a part of the Tripolitan War the *Constitution* served in the Mediterranean in active contact with the enemy. Commodore Preble's squadron arrived in the Mediterranean in the fall of 1803 relieving Commodore Rodgers' squadron. The *Constitution* served as flagship and her Marine officers were Captain John Hall and Second Lieutenant Robert Greenleaf.

On board the *Constitution* in July, 1803, there were two officers and fifty-two men. They supplied five posts. Captain's orderly "spirit room," and three outside.

A muster roll of the *Constitution*, dated April 19, 1804, was signed by Captain John Hall and carried the names of three sergeants, two corporals, one fifer, one drummer and forty-two privates. One of the sergeants was acting as Master-at-Arms. The Junior Marine Officer at the time was Second Lieutenant Robert Greenleaf, but, as was the custom, his name was not in the roll.

In the battle of August 3, 1804, Charles Young, of the *Constitution*, was wounded on board ship. Commodore Preble "was much gratified with the conduct of Captain John Hall and Second Lieutenant Robert Greenleaf, and the Marines belonging to his company, in the management of six long 26-pounders, on the spardeck, which I placed under his direction." These two Marine Officers received the thanks of Congress, and also swords from Congress, while the Marines received one month's additional pay.

A squadron under Commodore Barron was formed to relieve the squadron of Preble and the *Constitution* was assigned to it. Captain Hall and Lieutenant Greenleaf continued as her Marine Officers. Barron's squadron arrived before Tripoli on September 9, 1804.

After the finish of the Tripolitan War the American squadron, under Commodore John Rodgers, kept the Mediterranean peace.

The *Constitution* was included in Rodgers' squadron. Captain Anthony Gale was her Marine Officer.

Captain Gale, on the *Constitution*, at Syracuse, Sicily, on January 20, 1806, reported to the Commandant that he had "obtained permission from the Governor of this place to land the Marines for exercise. I take them out three times each week. They have improved in military discipline beyond my most sanguine expectations and while the Squadron remains together I will continue my exertions, and exert my best ability to improve them in their duty. My largest muster amounted to ninety—they made a very handsome appearance—and went through several maneuvers very much to my satisfaction."

Commodore Rodgers sailed for home in the *Essex* in the summer of 1806, leaving the *Constitution* and the

squadron under command of Commodore Hugh G. Campbell. A muster roll of the *Constitution* Marines, dated July 12, 1806, was signed by Lieutenant William Amory. The roll carried the names of 3 sergeants, 2 corporals, 1 fifer, 1 drummer, and 43 privates. In a short while there were left in the Mediterranean only the *Constitution*, *Hornet*, and *Enterprise*.

The Charge d'Affaires of the United States to Tunis died in October, 1806. Second Lieutenant Charles D. Coxe, commanding the Marines of the *Hornet*, arriving at Tunis on December 8th, was left there to act as Charge d'Affaires. Tobias Lear, Consul General of the United States to the Barbary Powers, arrived at Tunis on January 13, 1807, on the *Constitution*, "with a view to arrange our differences with" Tunis and left on the seventh of March, having given Lieutenant Coxe "the appointment of Charge d'Affaires for the United States" at Tunis, with the concurrence of Commodore Campbell, until "the pleasure of the President shall be known relating thereto."

In July of 1807, an incipient mutiny broke out on the *Constitution*, lying in the Bay of Leghorn, on account of the period of enlistment of most of her crew having long elapsed. It was quickly quelled, and she soon sailed for home, arriving at Boston in October. In describing this mutiny, Commodore Charles Stewart wrote that it was "near becoming serious" but "by the formidable appearance of a column of Marine bayonets, supported by nearly 100 gallant officers, armed, it was not only suppressed, but 20 of the ringleaders were secured and sent home in the ship, ironed, for punishment."

Lieutenant Archibald Henderson relieved Lieutenant Amory in command of the *Constitution's* Marines in the late autumn of 1807. Lieutenant Henderson signed the December, 1807, muster roll, which carried the names of 3 sergeants, 2 corporals, 1 fifer, 1 drummer, and 47 privates.

Lieutenant John Brooks, Jr., was her next Marine officer. He signed the September 1, 1809, muster roll, which carried 58 enlisted men's names. Lieutenant Brooks, who met a gallant death at the Battle of Lake Erie, of course joined earlier than the date of the foregoing muster roll.

Captain Henry Caldwell was commanding the Marine Guard of the *Constitution* on December 6, 1809, for he signed the muster roll of that date that showed the enlisted strength as 55 names.

Lieutenant Thomas R. Swift was the next Marine officer to serve on the *Constitution*. He signed the muster roll of January, 1811. He signed all the rolls up to March 31, 1812, and possibly later ones.

Lieutenant William S. Bush signed the June, 1812, muster roll, and probably joined the *Constitution* earlier.

War with Great Britain became a reality on June 18, 1812, when President James Madison approved an Act of Congress providing that war was "declared to exist" between the United States and Great Britain.

The *Constitution* captured the *Guerriere* on August 19, 1812. First Lieutenants William S. Bush and John Contee were the Marine officers of the American vessel. After a desperate action of several hours within pistol shot, in which the Marines' muskets were unusually effective, the *Guerriere's* bowsprit became engaged in the mizzen rigging of the *Constitution*. The Marines were called aft to board the *Guerriere*. They were led by the illustrious Lieutenant Bush, who mounted the taffrail, sword in hand, and, as he exclaimed "Shall I board her,

sir?" received a fatal musket ball on his left cheek-bone which passed through to the back of his head.

Thus fell the first Marine officer in battle since the Revolution.

"After the fall of Lieutenant Bush, Lieutenant Contee, of the Corps, took command of the Marines and his conduct was that of a brave, good officer and the Marines behaved with great coolness and courage during the action." Private Francis Mullen, stationed in the mizzen top, was the only other Marine casualty. He was wounded slightly through the ankle by a musket ball.

Of the loss of Lieutenant Bush, Captain Hull reported that "in him our Country has lost a valuable and brave officer." His Commandant wrote that he was "beloved while living and in death has shown a character perfectly military to imitate," and that "his memory will be cherished as long as heroic acts are valued." The Secretary of the Navy stated that "he died nobly," and "as a soldier would wish to die, in the arms of victory." Congress awarded a silver medal "to the nearest male relative of Lieutenant Bush," in "testimony of the gallantry and merit" of that deceased officer in whom "his country has sustained a loss much to be regretted."

A unique feature of this battle was the case of a woman serving on board the *Constitution* as a Marine. The name of this "Marinette" was Louisa Baker (Mrs. Nancy West—nee Lucy Brewer). She described Lieut. Bush as "a most humane and experienced officer."

Lieutenant Contee took command of the Marine Guard. He signed the muster roll for August. On September 18, 1812, Second Lieut. William H. Freeman was ordered to join the *Constitution* as junior Marine Officer. Henry Owen, Sergeant of Marines, was made Master-at-Arms, by Commodore Bainbridge on September 27, 1812.

On the 9th of January, 1813, a dinner was given by New York City to the "Seamen and Marines" of the *Constitution*. They "proceeded from the place of landing to the City Hotel, amidst the plaudits of thousands of citizens." After dinner they attended the theatre.

The *Constitution* captured and burned the *Java* on December 29th, 1812, "about ten leagues distant from the coast of Brazil" in an action that lasted one hour and 55 minutes. First Lieutenant John Contee and Second Lieutenant William H. Freeman were the Marine Officers.

The Englishman kept edging in until he got well within range of grape and musketry. After the battle began the British lost many men by the fire from the American top-men, and still more from the round and grape.

Once the stump of the *Java's* bowsprit caught in the *Constitution's* mizzen-rigging, and she was raked again, "while the American Marines and topmen by their steady fire prevented any effort to board." The gallant commander of the *Java* was mortally wounded by a ball fired by one of the American main-top men. At a court-martial trying the *Java* survivors on April 23, 1813, the testimony showed the fearful effects of the American musketry fire. "Captain Lambert was killed by a musket-shot." The British decks were annoyed considerably by musketry from the *Constitution's* tops and in the *Java's* fore-castle they suffered very much.

The *Constitution* suffered twenty-five casualties. Private Thomas Hanson was killed and Privates Anthony Reaver, John Elwell, and Michael Chesley wounded. The *Java* had 23 killed and 101 (including Second Lieutenant of Marines David Davies) wounded.

Commodore Bainbridge on January 3, 1813, reported to the Secretary of the Navy: "Should I attempt to do justice by representation, to the brave and good conduct of all of officers and crew during the action, I should fail in the attempt; therefore, suffice it to say, that the whole of their conduct was such as to merit my highest eulogiums. I beg leave to recommend the officers, particularly, to the notice of government; as also the unfortunate seamen who were wounded, and the families of those brave men who fell in the action." The Senate of Massachusetts thanked "the officers and crew" for this victory.

On March 3, 1813, the Commandant wrote to Lieutenants Contee and Freeman his "sincere congratulations" on "the success which attended" them. The Legislature of Maryland, his native State, voted Lieutenant Contee a costly sword for his gallant conduct during the entire War.

On March 3, 1813, Congress presented a silver medal to all officers "in testimony of the high sense entertained by Congress of the gallantry, good conduct and services" of all of them in the capture of the *Java*, "after a brave and skilful combat."

Thus closed the first year of the war of 1812 with a glorious naval victory.

The April, 1813, to August, 1813, muster rolls were signed by Lieutenant Freeman.

The *Constitution*, *Essex* and *Hornet* were ordered to rendezvous first at Port Praya, Island of St. Jago, and secondly at Fernando Noronha, but the three vessels never joined at these places.

Early in the summer Commodore Wm. Bainbridge, at Boston, anticipated an attack by the enemy. The *Independence* was launched and guns mounted on her. The *Independence* and *Constitution* were placed to repel an assault. Three small batteries were erected on the eastern embankment of the Navy Yard. Palisades were erected and some heavy cannon placed in rear of them. Marine sentinels were stationed around the Navy Yard.

Captain Archibald Henderson joined the *Constitution* for his second cruise some time prior to September, 1813, for he signed that month's muster roll.

The *Constitution* fell in with the *Cyane* and *Levant* on February 20, 1815, near Madeira Island. The battle started at 6:00 p. m., and "after a spirited engagement of forty minutes" both enemy vessels surrendered. At 6:10 the *Constitution* ranged up to the windward of the *Cyane* and *Levant*, the former on her port quarter, the latter on her port bow, both being distant about 250 yards from her, "so close that the American Marines were constantly engaged almost from the beginning of the action."

Among the American casualties were Privates Antonio Farrow, and William Horrell, who were killed, and Sergeant Benjamin Norcross and Privates Patrick Cane, William Holmes, and Andrew Chambers, who were wounded.

Captain Stewart, in a General Order dated February 23, 1815, returned "his thanks to the officers, seamen, ordinary seamen and Marines" for "their gallantry, order and discipline displayed." Captain Stewart reported that to "Captain Archibald Henderson and First Lieutenant W. H. Freeman, commanding the Marines, he owes his grateful thanks for the lively and well-directed fire kept up by the detachment under their command."

By hard work after the battle, the crew of the *Constitution* got all three ships—*Constitution*, *Cyane* and *Levant*—in sailing order before two o'clock the next



morning, and they sailed for the neutral port of Port Praya, in the Island of St. Jago, Cape de Verde, which was reached on March 10, 1815. Here a merchant vessel was chartered as a cartel to carry the prisoners. While employed in transferring the prisoners next day, the frigates *Newcastle*, *Leander* and *Acasta* appeared entering the harbor. It was a neutral port, but the British regard for neutrality had been shown at Valparaiso in the case of the *Essex*, and at Fayal in the case of the *General Armstrong*. There was nothing to do but to run for it.

Captain Stewart knew that the neutrality of the port would not save him, and that there was not a minute to lose if he wished to escape. Signalling for his prizes to follow, Captain Stewart cut his cable, and within ten minutes from the time that the first enemy ship was seen, all three American ships were standing out of the harbor.

It was a great race in which the *Constitution* and *Cyane* escaped the clutches of the enemy, while the little *Levant* was chased back into the neutral port. Here, after a severe bombarding from the ships and from shore, the *Levant* surrendered to the overpowering force. These events "justified the wisdom of Captain Stewart in not trusting to the neutrality of the port."

The *Cyane* arrived at New York on April 10, 1815, and the *Constitution* at Boston in May, 1815.

"Part of the officers and crew of the U. S. Frigate *Constitution* captured in a prize, the *Levant*, in the harbor of Proto-Praya," St. Jago Island, by a British squadron, arrived at Baltimore, Md., early in May, 1815.

Congress resolved on February 22, 1816, to present a gold medal to Captain Charles Stewart and silver medals to the commissioned officers "in testimony of the high sense entertained by Congress of the gallantry, good conduct, and service of Captain Stewart, his officers and crew in the capture of the British vessels of war, the *Cyane* and the *Levant* after a brave and skilful combat."

Captain Stewart sent the flags of the *Cyane* and *Levant* and one of the muskets to the Secretary of the Navy, on May 18, 1815, by Captain Archibald Henderson, for deposit in the Navy Department "as an evidence of the veracity of the late enemy." Captain Henderson, upon reporting his arrival in Washington to Lieutenant Colonel Commandant Wharton on May 23rd, informed him that he had "just arrived under orders from Captain Stewart with the flags of the two vessels captured by the *Constitution*." In 1839 the State of Virginia presented a sword to Henderson for "gallantry and good conduct" in this engagement and "for other good conduct during said War."

On April 29, 1830, Henderson wrote the Secretary of the Navy that "the services performed by Captain Freeman during the late War with Great Britain" gave "him a strong claim on his country for some mark of military distinction."



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# Hickory Ground

By COLONEL H. C. REISINGER, U. S. Marine Corps

GENERAL ELLIOTT told me this story some two or three years ago. In this story the General gives some interesting insight into the city of Norfolk in its early days and the character and condition of the negro farm hand in the South, twenty years after the Civil War. Here is the General's story as he told it to me:

I have had my share of fun in this life. My friends and horses and dogs have all added to the fun I have gotten out of living, but I believe that the greatest pleasure in life may be had behind a good bird dog. I have had some good bird shooting, even going as far as Oklahoma on these sort of trips. I had a funny trip down in Norfolk that might prove interesting.

In 1884 I was back in the Norfolk Navy Yard for duty. In those days Norfolk duty meant good fishing and shooting, good living and congenial social surroundings, and I am assured by the younger generation that life there today offers much the same inducements, if in a somewhat changed form. "Jimmy Jones" or his successor doesn't serve good musty ale with sea food, at any rate. It was a small city, around thirty or thirty-five thousand people, and did not extend beyond Pudding Creek that separates it from Ghent. The Ghent of today did not exist; where that attractive residential section now stands were only open fields in which I trained my dogs. The streets of Norfolk at that time are a painful memory; paved with large, heavy cobblestones so unevenly set in some sections that carriage riding was not only uncomfortable, unless you drove at a snail's pace, but a question of staying in the vehicle. Norfolk was even then an old town and the paving had been done in its infancy, by slave labor, I expect.

There was then a big export trade to Liverpool in cotton, the cotton compresses running day and night in the busy season. Most of this cotton came from the Carolinas. The city filled with sweating, cheerful negroes just beginning to realize the enjoyment of spending the fruits of their labor on themselves. The place was prosperous and had a lively, festival air. The trade died out later when the nearby cotton states began to build their own mills and use their local supply. I never recall those Norfolk days without thinking of "Jimmy Jones" as it was when Jimmy ran it himself. The name awakens pleasant memories. The place is so well known amongst old timers that no comment of mine could add to the fame of its delicious game and sea food dinners. To the old Navy, "Jimmy Jones" meant good food and we always looked forward to making Norfolk when on a cruise.

In the winter of 1884 I went back to Hickory Ground for a month's partridge shooting. I had made my first trip there in 1876 after it had been recommended to me by young Decatur. I believe he first discovered the possibilities of this territory. Mr. Decatur was the grand nephew of the famous old Commodore, and his father also was an officer of the Navy.

This locality is about twenty or twenty-five miles south of Norfolk. It had originally been a shallow lake and had been reclaimed by draining the water into Lake Drummond and the Northwest River that empties into

Currituck. The soil there was very fertile and everything they raised was exceptional in quality and quantity. Corn would grow so high that the stalks had to be pulled down so that a man could reach the upper ears and it was so fine that it was all exported, most of it going to Germany.

Dan Smith, a paymaster in the Navy and a hunting partner of mine, went along with me. We left the train at Hickory Post Office. There was one large building there which combined under one roof the post office, ticket office, and crossroads store; it was all run by one family. Evidently our coming had been noised about in the neighborhood, for when we arrived a tall, grey-haired, very black and dignified negro preacher came up to us and bowed. Standing around was quite a crowd of negro men and women.

"Gentlemen," he said, "you all are of the United States Navy, I hear. Will you do something for these ignorant niggers hereabouts?" He was solemn and impressive. We told him we would do what we could. I am afraid we were not very enthusiastic. We expected, of course, an appeal for church funds—and we were not any too flush. We were mistaken, we found out.

"Will you be kind enough," resumed the preacher, "to tell these here niggers that they ain't gwine to be returned to slavery. You all gentlemen are from the Government—they're liable to believe you. They won't believe me. There's likely to be trouble if something ain't done about it soon." We naturally expressed our surprise at his request and he told us the whole story.

The Presidential campaign that summer had been red hot. Blaine and Logan ran against Cleveland and Hendricks. The elections that fall had resulted in victory for the Democrats by a small margin. New York decided it, if I remember rightly. It was the first Democratic victory since the Civil War and the South was much set up over it. The young white men around Hickory Ground had been having a lot of fun teasing the negroes by telling them that when Cleveland was inaugurated the first thing the Democrats were going to do was to bring back slavery. They would hang around the crossroad stores and when a black man came in they would pretend to "choose" him and would argue amongst themselves as to which had first spoken for him. These colored people were so ignorant that they really believed slavery was coming again and they were in a bad way. Some of them owned small cabins and clearings, and, thoroughly frightened, they were actually preparing to abandon their holdings and go North. There was considerable danger of race excitement, barn burnings, and other forms of retaliation. They had reached the point where they avoided the white boys and never went to the store unless to buy some much-needed articles. So our coming into that neighborhood did real good, for the parson spread the word amongst his flock, and had us there to back him up.

Superstition was rife amongst these negroes. Their belief in the "night doctors" was very firm. These terrors were supposed to operate at night, to lay in wait for colored folk and seize them and sell their bodies for dissection in the medical schools. Dissection was a much-



discussed subject in those days and "night doctors" were powerfully real to the ignorant negro. They had one good effect, they kept the negro out of mischief after dark. It was only in an emergency that the colored folk went out after nightfall and then most of them would hold the middle of the road ready for instant flight at any suspicious movement near them.

We stayed, while on this shoot, with a gentleman who had a good farm with a comfortable house on it. He has gone to his last account and his people scattered, so I won't name him. He came of French Huguenot stock from South Carolina and his forebears were fine people. He was one of the handsomest men I've ever seen; he stood over six feet in height, powerfully built, with a full straw-colored beard and fine ruddy complexion. He stood high in that community and was said to be a dangerous man when roused; a peaceful, quiet citizen until some one started trouble and then he became a holy terror. He had a splendid war record and had served the South gallantly throughout the war, finishing his job in Mahone's Brigade in the defense of Petersburg and Richmond. His prize possession was his violin which he had carried through the Civil War and he was a finished performer of the old fiddler type. When he would swing in the "Bob Lee Jig"—well known to the Confederate Armies—you could not keep your feet still. It was a rare treat in the evening after a day's hunting to sit before the open log fire with a jug of the now forbidden before us and listen to our host play his fiddle. He was a genial, upstanding man and fine company. A great loss to Norfolk County when he died.

The shooting in those days was fine and we were out early and back late. I kept a number of friends and relatives in Norfolk supplied with birds; the partridges were so plentiful that I once sent fifty birds up for one supper party. The fields over which we shot were surrounded by deep ditches for drainage and in many places the only means of crossing a ditch would be a large log. I got the scare of my life one evening and it was mostly due to one of those log bridges.

We had been shooting all afternoon, Dan Smith and I, and it grew dark before we realized it was so late. I knew about where the log was that we had crossed to get into this field but I missed it in the late twilight. Dan and I separated, going in opposite directions along the ditch, thrashing through the bushes in the growing dusk. Finally I found a log and crossed. Dan had some trouble locating this foot-bridge and I, without looking where I was going, walked slowly along the path calling directions to him. Suddenly I stepped right up on something soft and it rose under me. I sprawled across it as it heaved up, dropping everything I was carrying. For a moment I honestly believe my hair stood on end, and then I fell off this object into the bushes by the path. I lay where I hit for a second with a huge ghostly shape towering above me, not knowing what was going to happen, and then out of the dark, as I got hold of myself, materialized an old white horse that had evidently been turned out to end its days in comfort. He almost ended mine—I have never been more frightened in my life, before or since.

Our host had a negro farm hand named Ike, to whom the "night doctors" were as real as ourselves. The subject was taboo so far as he was concerned, and if they were mentioned he would shake his head, roll his eyes at you and mumble to himself. Ike was a good negro and trusted. In the evenings when the mules had been fed

and put up for the night, he would slip into the kitchen where we usually sat around the open fire and quietly seat himself on an up-ended bucket. He, along with many of his kind, was convinced that he was safe from "night doctors" if he stayed near white folks. It was next to impossible to get Ike to go to the store after night had settled down and if he was homeward bound late in the afternoon he would hustle to get in before dark.

Ike had a remarkable accomplishment. The negroes called it "playing on the chin." He could make a loud noise deep down in his throat—a sort of a ululation and at the same time he would hold his lower jaw in his hand and rattle his teeth together in a weird accomplishment. A number of these darkies could play on the chin but Ike was the only one who could achieve a "tune" while playing. This must have been passed along to the negroes from early slave days, coming direct from the African Coast. Where some people whistle or sing for courage on a lonely road, Ike would make this peculiar noise and it could be heard a mile away.

One evening Dan and I were coming home when darkness caught us. It had been a long day and we had a great many birds and were dog tired. When we got within a mile of the house we sat down to rest on a log by the side of the road. There was a lot of broom straw growing along the road and we were pretty well hidden where we sat. In a minute or so I heard Ike down the road. He was making his peculiar music to keep away the "hants" and the "doctors." I told Dan to groan when Ike passed. Well, Ike went by us in one of his brief spells of silence—he could not keep up that racket continuously—and Dan let out a hollow groan. Ike stopped instantly, frozen with fear, and Dan groaned again. With a piercing scream, Ike sprang into the air and hit the ground running. The road was hard and we could hear him going home and he was flying. Every once in a while he would yell in terror.

When we reached the house there was great excitement in the kitchen. Ike had recovered enough to tell his story but he was shaking with fright and his eyes were rolling 'til the white showed. Both the little girls of our host were so excited that they were beating his legs with their small fists and shrilly demanding details of his adventure. We stood quietly and listened.

"'Fore Gawd, Missus," (Ike saw fame beckoning and he didn't waste the opportunity) "One of 'em night doctors, he moan, and 'en three, four of 'em dey gathers 'round, and one of 'em he claps a plaster right over my mouf. And I fits 'em and I tears me loose of 'em and I lights out fer home and ev'ry last one of 'em night doctors dey come arunnin' after me right smang up to de barn 'fore dey quit."

Our hostess laughed at him. "Oh, Ike, what an outrageous lie," she said.

Ike shook his head violently and stuck to his story. "'Fore Gawd, Missus, it's de Gawd's honest truf. Some day dey's gwine to get Ike." And he added accusingly, "Ain't I dun tole you not to send me so fer 'way from de house, I can't get back 'fore dark!"

We left Ike in ignorance; it would have been a shame to have told him, and I am sure he would not have believed us. Nothing could have cheated him out of the joy of re-telling each harrowing detail of his encounter. Before I left Hickory Ground, Ike was the self-made hero of an experience that would have done credit to Baron Munchhausen himself.



AN AMPHIBIAN PLANE IN NICARAGUA

## Aviation in Guerrilla Warfare

By CAPTAIN H. DENNY CAMPBELL, U. S. Marine Corps

*(Continued from last issue)*

IT has already been hinted and prophesied by many authorities that, in the future, air forces may replace armies and navies. While these predictions have not yet been realized in major wars, the power of independent air operations to produce efficacious results in subduing smaller rebellious nations or factions, in winning small wars, and for the maintenance of law and order, is worthy of study here. This subject has already received consideration in many of the larger countries and even today the United States is prepared to meet contingencies in which the Air Corps may be predominant, as evidenced by the fact that U. S. Army Regulations 95-10 provide for the assignment of other arms to the Air Corps, when acting alone.

### Other Arms Assigned

One of the limitations of the air arm and very frequently advanced by its opponents is that it cannot seize the hold ground. There is no question but what this is a true characteristic of the arm, when it is not supported by at least some ground forces, but there have been in the past and will continue to be in the future many cases in which the air forces will be predominant. While the air force is ill adapted to occupying terrain, it can make this same terrain untenable and thereby deny it to the enemy. And in passing let me state that it is not beyond the realm of aviation, provided with capacity carrying

troop transports, to land troops to hold this ground after it has been wrested from the enemy by aviation.

With other arms assigned to protect its bases and lines of communication, an Independent Air Force can carry on operations at great distances, can penetrate deserts, jungles and mountainous country, which foot troops could only hope to traverse with the greatest difficulty, subjecting themselves to all the rigors common to guerrilla campaigns such as lack of railroads or even highways, intense heat, fever and disease, extreme discomforts of all sorts, lack of water and the likelihood of being shot at from behind every bush. Moreover the airplane or a group of airplanes has sufficient fire power to defeat an enemy on the ground, break up his organization, destroy his morale and effect a complete disbanding and surrender. It may even by the moral effect and terrorization caused by its threat alone accomplish submission without bloodshed. In other cases of a more difficult nature the small ground force assigned to the air arm, transported in armored cars or fast tanks, and directed from the air, might be employed successfully to mop up after an air attack, arrest the leaders, disorganize the army and thus end the war.

In the past, wars have most always been decided by man-power; in the future they will be decided by machine-power begotten by brain-power and that side will win which possesses the most up to date equipment. Our difficulty in fighting guerrilla wars in the past has not



been one of skill, but of distance, of lack of mobility on the ground as opposed to a comparatively mobile enemy. Today this no longer holds true, fronts may be anywhere, flanks may be anywhere, but aircraft can always attack from the third dimension and are provided by their very nature with the mobility to outdistance and outwit the enemy. Thus we see that this arm, if provided with the necessary protection to allow it to function, permits in some instances, because of its facility for displacement, its speed and its radius of action, the obtaining of effects which any other arm could not produce with the same ease and economy of force.

#### Unsupported by Other Arms

Even an entire campaign may be carried out by the air forces without the assistance of ground troops in any way, if provided with a reasonably well protected base for operations. This protection, as opposed to that generally furnished by the presence of other arms, might be as a result of location in friendly territory, by reason of the distance from the enemy, ordinary police protection, protection given by friendly native troops or when operations are conducted from a carrier, which furnishes its own protection.

It is perfectly logical to conceive of situations where the air forces could, by their operations alone, force bandits and outlaws to submit to their demands without the assistance of other arms, their attendant casualties and increased expense. This is indeed a difficult task to ask the air arm to carry out but the effectiveness of the airplane as a weapon in guerrilla warfare, under these conditions, was proven without a doubt by the Royal Air Force in India in 1925. Four squadrons, in six weeks, at the comparatively small cost of fifty thousand pounds, succeeded in bringing the tribesmen of a certain section to terms, which, under normal conditions would have required a reinforced brigade an indefinite time to settle. The effectiveness of the airplane also left a wholesome respect in the hearts of the outlaws for law and order.

The employment of the air arm in lieu of ground forces provides a method of control more effective and less costly in life and suffering on both sides. Air action can be taken swiftly at the focus of trouble and before the disturbance at which it is directed has time to permeate a larger area. It has the immense advantage that, compared with slow movement of ground forces over unfamiliar territory, it offers to the opponents no chance of retaliation by ambush or concentration.

Independent operations will be carried on more frequently as time goes on, in dealing with situations which are beyond the striking power of military forces. The air force will be extremely valuable at the beginning of an uprising to disperse hostile gatherings. If warnings fail, these assemblies and centers of dissension should be bombed and machine gunned at the very beginning, with a view to breaking their will to fight. Apart from the military aspects of its employment, the ubiquity of the air arm serves as a constant reminder over widespread areas of its existence, and this, in itself, has a very tranquilizing effect.

The latest example of the moral effect of aircraft against troops who cannot meet aircraft with aircraft, has been the campaign against the Mad Mullah of Somaliland, where the Royal Air Force was the striking power. "The power of the Mullah, which had withstood many land expeditions, crumbled at last to a punitive expedition

from the air." (Over the Balkans and South Russia, by H. A. Jones.)

The Somaliland Administration was also embarrassed in 1922 by fanatical tribesmen. It was estimated that a battalion of infantry would be required to deal with the disturbance, but within thirty-eight hours of their arrival from Aden two airplanes subdued the uprising by the moral effect of their appearance, and by a mere demonstration of their capabilities.

We frequently hear that the object of war is to destroy the enemy. This is not so. The true object of war is not to kill soldiers, sink ships and destroy property but to change a policy which these soldiers, ships and property are protecting. If, in the event of a guerrilla war, an air force can accomplish this end with less physical destruction than other forces, it will humanize the method. In the olden days, conflicts were based on brute force, hand to hand fighting, axe warfare, and were brutal. We then find that gunpowder humanized warfare by permitting of long range fighting. Next we find that gas can incapacitate without killing. It humanizes bullet warfare. Therefore, if our latest arm, aviation, can change policies and win wars solely by its threat or by a demonstration of its omnipotence, certainly this is a most logical and humane means of conquering bellicose people.

The following paragraph is quoted from the account of independent air operations carried on by the Royal Air Force in India:

"The successful conclusion of the operation has vindicated the claim of the Royal Air Force to be able to undertake small offensives on the Northwest Frontier of India without the aid of troops."

(Extract from Journal of Royal Artillery, October, 1928.)

In the above situation, the enemy were forced to abandon their villages and sought refuge among the numerous caves in their own territory, to which they were closely confined by effective bombing.

Now while the deciding factor in this case was claimed by the opponents to be fleas, and not airplanes, we must, in all fairness, give full credit to the latter. It is also worthy of note that only two men and one airplane were lost during these operations and there were surprisingly few casualties among the enemy. The effectiveness is also emphasized by the fact that six other tribes in the vicinity surrendered at once to avoid being bombed themselves.

It should be evident that the usefulness of aviation in independent operations, circumstances permitting, either with or without ground troops assigned, offers a wide range of possibilities in reducing suffering, lessening the burden of expense and humanizing guerrilla warfare.

#### Cooperation With Other Arms

Since it is probable that aircraft will never abolish armies, we will now turn our attention to the use of aviation in guerrilla warfare in cooperation with ground forces. The moral and tactical value of aircraft is very great. One of the chief difficulties of mountain warfare is ignorance of what is happening on the other side of the hill. While it is difficult for aircraft to locate brown men scattered among brown rocks on a hillside, it will be comparatively easy to report any gatherings and the general trend of their movements.

One of the chief difficulties of bush warfare is the

limitation of the field of view. Here again the airplane proves its usefulness by acting as the eye of the infantry.

In tropical wars, heat and the difficulty of supply and movement are the white man's worst enemies. This is another instance where the airplane can relieve the infantryman by doing much of his fighting and scouting, and by relieving the supply situation, not only in emergencies but on a regular schedule. The main body of a force will usually be forced to move along the valleys or follow roads and beaten trails. Therefore airplane protection will be of first importance in securing marching columns from ambush and surprise.

While the ideal objective is the destruction of the enemy's main forces and the submission of their leaders, this objective is frequently difficult to obtain. An attack on something of importance to the rebels, such as their villages, crops or herds, may force them to surrender or to give battle and so lay themselves open to defeat. The aforementioned are ideal targets for the airplane by reason of its great fire power, its mobility and its capabilities of repeated attack and continued harassment with a minimum of personnel.

Aviation will produce its greatest efficiency when used in liaison with the other arms and in working for their success, because, in any war, tactics consist in assuring the coordination of all forces. We must not then look to aviation for a decision in war (except under conditions enumerated under Independent Air Operations) any more than we can demand it of the artillery, the machine gun, the tank or any other special arm. All have their limitations and all have their utility. Each one must be placed, and aviation, like the others, at the service of the arm which carries the decision. Therefore, let us now consider the employment of aviation in guerrilla warfare, in cooperation with the ground forces as an aid to binding them together, so as to make the organization able to better function as a whole.

It should be the policy of aviation to keep in close touch and conform with care to the detailed plans of the Area Commanders, to give the closest attention to the security and welfare of the non-combatant native population and to carry out aggressively at all times the plans and doctrine of the High Command.

### Reconnaissance

A very important role is that of reconnaissance. Before contact, aviation must discover the enemy forces and positions, determine his dispositions and strength, locate his reserves and main body, photograph the terrain and defensive positions and keep informed, not only the higher command but the troops themselves, of all conditions involving the execution of their mission.

Visual reconnaissance will constitute the chief source of air intelligence and should be carried out with extreme thoroughness. No point should be overlooked, however small, which may have a bearing on the situation. This in general requires a keen eye, good judgment and reliability, coupled with experience and a dependable two place airplane. Planes should normally be dispatched in pairs on reconnaissance missions for corroboration of information, for the presentation of the information from different angles and viewpoints, and for the purpose of training less experienced pilots and observers.

Air reports should always be compared with local information and ground intelligence in order that they

may be properly evaluated with all the information at hand.

Reconnoitering for information of an enemy, who does not have a permanent base of any sort, who does not wear a distinctive uniform, who employs every known ruse to conceal himself, seeking cover in the remotest parts and frequently mingling with people who are at least neutral, is by no means an easy task. Until the outlaws learn to conceal their camps, their movements and positions, the art of reconnaissance is comparatively simple, but as soon as they begin to conceal themselves and practice their methods of deception it immediately becomes a more difficult problem. However, the skilled and experienced observer will be able to state positively whether an area contains the enemy, is free from the enemy, or is suspicious.

Ruses used in the field, to deceive the air observer, consist of attempts to conceal the hostile forces in heavy woods, crude attempts at camouflage of positions, stables, etc., location of camps in terrain offering the best cover from aerial observation, concealment of their arms, feigning innocence, hiding behind the protection of women and children and many other tricks of like nature. Indications of the location of hostile groups are denoted by concentrations of males, bodies of men concealed in woods, encampments, camp fires, beaten trails, individuals taking cover from an airplane as differentiated from running away on account of natural fright, marks of uniform if such are worn and the opening of fire when they think they are discovered or attacked.

In villages or settlements the presence of the outlaws is frequently indicated by an overcrowded population, by a preponderance of males, or even by their complete absence, the size of the family wash (proportion of pants to petticoats), the appearance of yards, roads and trails, the number and kind of animals observed and the actions and general bearing of the people seen. In case a particular locality is considered as only suspicious, and other signs fail, a bomb dropped close by or a few harmless bursts from the machine gun will usually produce some evidence, so that the place may be catalogued as containing hostile parties or as being free from them beyond doubt.

### Distant Reconnaissance

Visual reconnaissance may be distant, close or battle. Distant reconnaissance will be conducted during the period of strained relations, before hostilities have actually commenced or while the opposing forces are still far apart. It will consist of a general survey of the hostile territory, location, strength and disposition of the enemy forces, a complete survey of the road net and possible locations for advanced landing fields and bivouac areas, and the obtaining of other information of general importance at this stage of operations. It will also serve to check maps, make sketches, obtain photographs and familiarize the flying personnel with the country and its characteristics. Every advantage should be taken of the opportunity to learn the terrain as it will be of tremendous value when contact is made, especially when confronted with bad weather.

Before undertaking a campaign against guerrilla forces it is of extreme importance that a careful estimate of the situation be made. Much bloodshed and many costly errors have been recorded in history because commanders have under-rated their opponents by under-estimating



their strength. This has usually been attributed to a lack of information, either due to a failure to make a proper reconnaissance or to the lack of facilities for conducting it. In other words those leaders worked in the dark. It is, therefore, evident that a proper estimate of the situation with its accompanying decision cannot be made, and still adhere to the principle of economy of force, without first having at least a fair knowledge of the enemy's strength. Many will ask: How is this information to be obtained? We have no Cavalry and it could not operate under the conditions even if we had it. We cannot send out reconnaissance parties because they would be ambushed and destroyed. Without further discussion of this point, the answer is—Aviation. Aviation furnishes the tool the commander needs and by its means, which is practically the only means during the opening stages, a fairly accurate estimate of the enemy's forces can be obtained. Therefore, during the period while distant reconnaissance is being carried on, this information of the enemy and his movements will constitute a most important mission for the air force.

#### Close Reconnaissance

Close reconnaissance starts when the two forces are within striking distance and as soon as there is the slightest danger of ambush or attack on the friendly column. At this stage of operations aviation not only maintains a close surveillance over the enemy movements, but will also act as an escort and an advance guard, securing the column from surprise and keeping it informed of the location of hostile bodies of troops. Daily and more frequently if occasion arises, contacts will be made with the advancing column or columns, by the most feasible method available, either by landing, radio, panels, dropping and picking up messages, etc., for the purpose of delivering the latest information and to keep higher headquarters informed of the progress of the march and to communicate their needs. Observation, as the two forces approach closer and closer, must also become more local and more careful, making every effort to prevent a surprise attack by the enemy.

#### Battle Reconnaissance

When the opposing forces have made contact battle reconnaissance begins. This requires the gaining of the most detailed information of the enemy's location, disposition and strength and a close observation of his movements. Above all, this information must be communicated to the ground troops without delay. During the fight the ground forces should be kept constantly informed of the best routes of approach, possibilities of effecting a flank attack or warning of such from the enemy, location of hostile reserves or their absence, indications of an enemy withdrawal and probable avenues of escape. The difficulty of maneuvering troops, machine guns and heavier weapons, when attacked, over trails and difficult terrain is often a serious problem in bush warfare, which can be greatly facilitated by assistance in the way of information from the all-seeing airman. In addition, during combat, the airplane can materially assist the infantry with its own fire power. This phase will be discussed elsewhere.

The practical value of aviation during these stages cannot be over-rated. As the French say in Morocco, quoting General Niessel: "We cannot have too many avions, aviation is one of our greatest resources and very precious."

There is no substitute for air reconnaissance. As a means of mountain reconnaissance the airplane offers exceptional facilities. It offers an excellent means of keeping the Commander-in-Chief informed of the general situation, especially in those parts where land communications are difficult or completely interrupted, it will win battles, prevent defeat, save untold bloodshed and prove to be of inestimable value from many standpoints.

#### Photographic Reconnaissance

The importance of the aerial photograph is self evident and its uses are multiple. Photographs are of enormous value to the infantry, particularly for an attack or a march into hostile territory over difficult terrain, for which accurate maps are not available. Obliques should be distributed to all companies and patrols for their use in studying minutely the ground over which they are to attack or reconnoiter. Verticals from low altitude, of any organized positions or dangerous areas, defiles, etc., along the line of march, will be of value in preventing surprise and ambushes, when in an unknown country. When the area over which the operation is to take place is considerable, mosaic strips should be made for the higher commanders.

Another asset vested in aerial photography is its value for correcting existing maps. Maps in many semi-civilized countries, if there are any at all, are so misleading as to be almost useless. Moreover these corrected sheets and new maps of little explored territory will be of future value in opening up the country.

Photography forms one of the useful and important functions of aircraft in reconnaissance. It should be used to supply details not visible to observers, to verify important observations, to supplement existing maps and to show the location and organization of the hostile defenses. The uses for the camera are manifold and it will be rare when aviation will be able to make the supply meet the demand of a ground commander who realizes its possibilities.

#### Infantry Liaison

Much has been and volumes more could be written on liaison. Air liaison with ground forces has saved the day in many an unfortunate circumstance, in practically every country confronted with a guerrilla war for the past ten years, and has received much favorable comment from many eminent military leaders. During the Ocotul fight in Nicaragua an entire garrison was undoubtedly saved by the arrival of the daily air patrol, which discovered the besiegement and immediately summoned the Brigade Mobile Reserve—a formation of airplanes, carrying the fire power which broke up the attack and saved the little garrison. Two planes made the patrol that morning. I mention this to again emphasize the advisability of working in pairs. On this occasion one plane barely escaped capture and by good fortune alone missed being shot down.

#### The Air Patrol

When organizations, detachments or infantry patrols take the field in savage warfare they frequently penetrate far into the rough, into heavily forested mountains, into remote jungles and deserts, and necessarily become far separated from the Commander-in-Chief, even to the extent of many days. Not only is this true from a standpoint of time or march but communication as well. By use of the airplane this is reduced comparatively to a

matter of minutes and serves as an entirely satisfactory method of maintaining liaison between detachments and General Headquarters.

The mission of this daily or periodic air patrol will be to maintain contact with and receive daily reports from the ground forces, to evacuate sick and wounded, to furnish the troops with medical and other emergency supplies, mail, intelligence reports, any new military information, the location and movement of other columns, to deliver orders and provide combat support if required. In addition to this it will conduct a reconnaissance, visit other patrols or garrisons within its zone and return to the airdrome, where it will submit a report from each member of the flight, to be consolidated into the daily intelligence report.

The ground organizations down to and including small patrols should be equipped with distinguishing panels, pyrotechnics, signal panels and message pick-up gear. Each plane should be equipped with ammunition and bombs, field message books, message drop sticks, message pick-up line and preferably one plane equipped with radio. The air patrol proceeds to its area of operations, makes contact and carries out its mission. The list of vitally important details that can be accomplished on these patrols is too great to be included in this discussion. The moral effect alone more than justifies the procedure.

#### Combat Liaison

In combat, aviation must assure the liaison between the fractions of a command, detached or advanced, or between two forces attacking opposition from different directions. This is accomplished either by radio, by dropped messages or by means of any other prearranged signals. By this means the movements of one or more columns can be successfully directed, coordinated and timed from the air. It is, therefore, considered essential, that, for the best results, commanders of such operations should make every possible use of the airplane, even in going so far as to command their forces from the air, during the approach and the initial development for battle, and I will even go further and say that the commander of two or more separated forces, participating in an enveloping, turning or surrounding movement, could better command the fractions of his command and his command as a whole, from the air, during the hours of daylight, than from any other place. While I believe I am right in saying that this has never been done, I predict here, that it will not be uncommon in the future, for the commander of a detachment of ground forces in guerrilla warfare to establish his post of command in the rear seat of an observation airplane. In support of this somewhat futuristic statement and the possibility of coordinating ground attacks from the air, I would cite the many instances in the recent Nicaraguan Campaign where this was actually done—not by the commander of the ground troops, but by the flying personnel, and with success. Other instances are well known during this same campaign and others, in which ground commanders have actually pleaded for definite orders from those in the air. It is not reasonable to expect that flying personnel will in general be competent or experienced in handling ground situations or in giving orders for them, nor is it reasonable to expect that they will be authorized to do so. In running down, defeating and capturing rebel armies it is a common practice and frequently necessary to send

out more than one detachment. In almost every type of savage warfare the enemy are to be noted for their mobility. This is due to their experience in moving in the country concerned, their natural ability and their powers of endurance. They are also unencumbered by supply columns and administrative services. This peculiarity of the enemy makes it compulsory to use every stratagem known to military science to outwit these irascible brigands. This scheme of commanding ground forces from the air does not in any way work to deny the ground troops of their immediate commander. Let us assume, for example, a battalion in the attack. Two companies are attacking, one frontally, the other on the flank or rear, out of immediate supporting distance of each other, the third company is in reserve. In this case the battalion commander would take station in the air, at such times and for as long as he saw fit, during daylight, for directing and coordinating his attack. However, regardless of the scheme of maneuver or the number of columns, it should be evident that an elevated mobile observation post, furnishing almost momentarily a choice of several means of reliable communication with the attacking forces, the reserve and the staff, presents opportunities for command heretofore overlooked and untried.

#### Ground Strafing

Ground strafing produces very desirable results in guerrilla warfare but due to the difficulty in locating targets, the necessity for identifying hostile troops and the dangers involved in low flying, the usual tactics of attack aviation are not normally applicable to the employment of aviation in this type of warfare. With an armored plane there are many targets that could be successfully attacked by these methods and which would be so attacked in a major war but it is not considered that risks, commensurate with those taken in a major war, except in an emergency where ground troops are involved, should be undertaken against these lawless opponents. The armored plane is the answer to many questions in future aerial operations in time of war.

#### The Diving Attack

Under present conditions the method of attack best suited to the occasion must be adopted. It has been found in most operations in the past, advisable to approach the target at a safe altitude, concealing the approach as much as possible, then diving to the attack, covering the dive with the front guns. Three to five planes are normally employed in one formation, the leader making the first attack, after placing the formation in echelon or column. Each succeeding single plane attack is so timed as to protect the preceding plane during its ascension until it is approximately out of range of immediate effective ground fire, by firing short bursts from the front guns. Planes will therefore be so spaced that one plane is starting its dive as the one ahead is pulling out. In this manner the target is continually covered. As each pilot dives to the attack he will select his own individual target in the immediate area under attack, which is most vital to the enemy and which offers the greatest possibility of destruction. Those are important factors. Maneuver is an integral part of fire tactics, and every endeavor must be made to maneuver in such a way as to create favorable opportunities for one's own fire and to deny such opportunities to the enemy. The twenty-five pound fragmentation bomb has been found



very effective against personnel, animals and native shacks. Heavier bombs should be carried for attacking fortified positions and more permanent structures. The altitude for dropping the bombs will depend upon the type of fuse used. With delayed fuses the bombs may be dropped from any altitude, but when instantaneous fuses are employed it will not be safe to approach closer than seven hundred feet above the ground. Very accurate bombing, however, can be done from this altitude with a little practice and it should be the aim of every organization to keep its pilots proficient in the use of the bomb and machine gun by affording them plenty of practice during lulls at the front.

Favorable targets for ground strafing consist of troop columns and pack trains on the march, hostile positions, bivouacs and villages and avenues of escape being used by the enemy.

#### **Troop Columns and Pack Trains**

When troops and animals march in close formation they present a very vulnerable target to air attack. The success of such an attack will depend directly upon the amount of surprise obtained. It is therefore, imperative, in order to secure the best results that the attack be made with a minimum of delay after the discovery of the target, so that it may be hit before there is sufficient time to disperse. When possible the column should be taken by surprise from the rear. There is not only a much greater possibility of obtaining surprise from the rear, but an attack from this direction will create greater confusion, and make it more difficult for the troops to disperse, since the natural tendency is to scatter laterally as well as forward and away from the attacks. Men trying to run look behind them at the same time will also fall down and others will stumble over them. Consequently less dispersion will be attained than from a frontal attack where the tendency is to run to the right and left with the airplane in view. The ideal approach as far as the surprise element is concerned is from the rear, through the clouds or out of the sun, and into the wind. There is one exception. If making a low altitude approach and the wind is at all strong the attack should be made down wind.

When possible, without loss of surprise, attacks should be so timed as to hit the columns as they pass through defiles, up narrow ravines, or where the road is bordered on one or both sides by heavy underbrush. On diving to the attack, should the leader find that the hostile column has transfigured itself into a woman with a highly tanned baby in each arm, he must let his conscience be his guide, and use his own judgment. A minute inspection of the brush would undoubtedly reveal a rebel behind each bush with as many rifles pointed in his direction.

Pack trains are particularly vulnerable, especially in rough country.

#### **Bivouacs and Villages**

Surprise is the essence of attack on bivouacs and villages. A study of the habits of the people themselves, their racial characteristics and the peculiarities of the particular section will frequently lead to deductions as to the most propitious time and method of attack. In many tropical countries it is a time worn custom to take it easy during the heat of the day. Consequently the majority of the population will be found lounging around

during this period. In other semi-tropical republics where natives are more ambitious the larger part of the citizenry may be occupied in the fields during the working hours of the day. This method of reasoning is applicable to bivouacs and encampments.

In conducting such attacks, however, they should not be repeated always at the same time of day. The time must be varied or the element of surprise will be lost. Time will also vary with the nature of the attack, depending upon whether it is designed to inflict the maximum number of casualties or to act as a threat.

At the beginning of hostilities and from time to time, if necessary, a policy should be laid down by the commander of the combined forces regarding attacks on villages and areas outside the combat zone, with respect to the possibility of inflicting casualties on non-combatants, women and children and of injury to property of innocent persons. This policy must be strictly adhered to.

Attacks on personnel, whether they be in bivouacs or villages, should be low altitude or diving attacks, protecting the approach with the front guns and in the same manner as on troop columns. The attacking pilots should be able to see where groups are congregated and to direct their bombs where they will have the maximum effect. In case the attack has for its purpose general destruction or moral effect only, the bombs may be released from any altitude out of range of small arms fire while the plane is in level flight.

#### **Hostile Positions**

Attacks on organized positions, hostile bodies, or patrols may or may not be made in direct support of ground forces. Fighting is spasmodic, the infantry is not always in combat and there are many interruptions in their operations. It is necessary then to distinguish between the missions of aviation which are done in liaison with the operations of troops of other arms and those which it executes in the intervals between the operations of these troops. During these intervals the air force will be constantly employed on missions equally as important in the final outcome as those during actual engagements. Reconnaissance and ground strafing will be all-important during these lulls in the fighting. The morale of the enemy will be undermined chiefly by fear, and by keeping him in ignorance of what is going to happen next. The fact that he breaks off combat should not be allowed to give him any rest; on the contrary he should be constantly attacked and harassed from the air. There is no more effective manner known in which to break the guerrilla enemy's will to fight, and to force submission of their leaders, than by these methods. It is not intended to say that aviation functions thus as an independent arm, because even in this case, its actions must enter into the general plan of operations and serve to lighten ultimately, the task of the ground troops.

Attacks made under these circumstances may be made either from low altitude approaches or by diving from a safe altitude, as conditions warrant, and in either case covering the approach with the front guns and making each attack an aimed attack. However, in view of the smallness of the targets, the fact that guerrilla bands move frequently and conceal themselves well, and in many cases, due to the nature of the terrain, it will more often than not be imperative to make the diving attack, owing to the necessity of first locating the target.

I wish to emphasize again here that the diving attack

has been found to be very successful and effective, especially during recent operations in Nicaragua. In addition to affording accurate sighting of the bombs it affords the plane added protection in that it allows the pilot to locate the target and use aimed fire with the front guns during the approach. Many decisive attacks have been made in Nicaragua over a period of two years, using this method, without the loss of a single ship. In further support of my opinion and experience along these lines I will quote General Maund of the Royal Air Force, who, after making an attack on the Bolshevik troops of South Russia, said: "The method adopted was to dive low until the target could be seen through the sights, whereupon the bombs would be released while the ship was still in the dive. Troops, transports and artillery in position were attacked this way. The accuracy of the bombing was remarkable."

These attacks should be made with not less than two planes and preferably three or more, depending upon the importance, defense and impregnability of the target, and the size of the bombs used will vary from twenty-five pound fragmentation bombs to one hundred pound demolition bombs accordingly. It is a principle that no less than two planes be employed on all missions over hostile territory. The reasons for this are manifold but principally for mutual protection, for the moral effect produced on the flying personnel, rendering assistance in forced landings and for the prevention of alibis on the part of the pilot. It also constitutes an admirable means of indoctrinating new personnel. As in other attacks every advantage should be taken of sun, wind, clouds and terrain.

There will always be many targets of this nature available and the number of attacks made will only be limited by the will of the Commander-in-Chief and the supplies available.

#### Avenues of Escape

Aviation can render equally effective results during pursuit operations of a defeated enemy. Guerrillas are prone to strike their blow and get away and especially to withdraw when defeat is threatening. Due to their knowledge of the country and their ability to move rapidly, they have in the past been able to make very successful escapes. The airplane must now make this escape more difficult by employing its weapons to deny the retreating enemy all possible roads, trails and natural avenues of escape. This will turn the retreat into a rout, causing the enemy to abandon any transportation he may have, due to lack of road facilities, to abandon machine guns and equipment of all kinds and to throw away his arms in order to lighten himself, with a view to becoming more fleet of foot. Great panic can thus be produced upon these unorganized armies when they are in danger of a detailed defeat.

Aviation can likewise cover a retirement and facilitate a withdrawal of our own forces by impeding and slowing up the advance of the adversary and above all by keeping him from gaining our flanks.

#### Combat Support

Aviation must consider throughout, as its most essential task, that which surpasses all others: The aid to be given in combat to the infantry. For lack of a better name we will term this direct assistance given to the ground troops in the fight as combat support.

#### Observation and Fire Power

During the battle the air service will employ its powers of observation and communication, its machine guns and bombs, and its moral effect in such manner as to render the greatest possible assistance to the supported troops and to inflict maximum destruction on the insurgents. It should be borne in mind that during the fight, battle reconnaissance is being carried on—information is being gathered and communicated to the ground—and the flanks and hostile rear areas are being carefully watched. Coincident with this mission and equally important is the mission of dealing blows to the hostile forces at decisive moments, either on call from the infantry or when targets of opportunity are revealed to the pilot. Targets of opportunity embrace those such as hostile groups lying in ambush, flanking parties, reinforcements still undeployed, strong points, machine gun nests, reserves in rear areas and command posts. This dual role of observation and fighting requires that all airplanes used for this purpose should be two-seaters, should carry a full load of bombs and machine gun ammunition and should be equipped with message pick-up gear, drop message sticks, tubes or bags. While radio has not proved entirely satisfactory in the past, its rapid development will make it very desirable, if not extremely important, to have at least one radio-equipped plane performing this duty.

#### The Art of Cooperation

In supporting ground forces it is highly essential that the flying personnel understand the scheme of maneuver and the intentions of the commander, be well versed in the tactics of guerrilla warfare, and be well trained in the art of cooperating with the infantry. Every pilot and observer must familiarize himself with the panel codes, be adept at picking up and dropping messages and trained to be ever observant for signs on the ground, which may turn the tide of the battle. On the other hand the infantry message center personnel must be thoroughly trained in the use of the various methods of exchanging information and the soldier must be perfectly trained in marking his position. In guerrilla warfare combat frequently takes place at very close ranges and often in wooded terrain where it is difficult to distinguish the dividing line. In this case the closest of cooperation is required. Extreme care must be taken to insure that friendly troops are safe from the air attack, and it may even be necessary, when the engagement is taking place in heavily wooded terrain, for the infantry to direct the air attack from the ground, by giving the direction and range of the target with their panels.

#### The Advance, Attack and Pursuit

During the advance to the attack, aviation will lend all possible support by directing the advancing troops over the most accessible routes, protect them from surprise and act as an advance guard by clearing the way. During the attack it will lend the closest support by cleaning out machine gun nests, artillery positions and strong points, by keeping the ground commander informed of the enemy situation and his own forces, by direct attack on threatening points and by attacks on reserves and groups of reinforcements, with the object of scattering them before they can be put into action. During the pursuit, aviation has equally effective powers and can be em-



played usefully to retard and block the retreat of the enemy, cut off his escape, prevent his reorganization and greatly assist in his annihilation. Another and very important advantage is that the airplane can pursue the defeated force well out of the zone where the other arms could have followed.

#### Aviation in the Role of Artillery

Among its many other roles aviation usually takes the place of artillery. The infantryman can seldom count on the support of artillery in guerrilla warfare, even when it is available, due to the rugged mountainous regions, inaccessibility of other terrain, jungles, trails, etc., over which battles frequently take place. Combat is necessarily fragmentary, often chaotic and targets small; and above all these live and moving objectives easily escape the artillery. Furthermore, the supply of munitions is restrained by the conditions of the terrain and the difficulties of transport. These circumstances go together in diminishing the possibilities of artillery employment. The airplane, due to its fire power and facilities for observation, plus its range and mobility, is capable of producing a very desirable effect in supporting the infantryman deprived of artillery.

In analysing the use of aviation in guerrilla warfare we should not overlook its possibilities in giving special assistance and support to besieged outposts.

#### Aviation Qualified to Prevent and Assist

Our wary opponents often withhold their fire to as close ranges as fifty feet and are particularly adept at ambushing small forces, nailing them to the ground, with overwhelming numbers. Many a patrol and outpost has fought for dear life under these circumstances, being able to hold out until reinforcements arrived, solely by the assistance of aviation in combat support, timely information and the replenishing of ammunition, food and other supplies. Guerrilla forces are great believers in the old maxim—"There is safety in numbers"—and apparently understand the principle of mass, even though it may not be in accordance with the principle of economy of force. Feeling a sense of security in their own numbers, they are in the habit of concentrating their own forces for the purpose of cutting off and besieging small garrisons and outposts. The airplane, in making its daily contact with all forces in the field is well qualified to pick up first-hand information of these operations, to prevent them, give warning and lend assistance, and the personnel should be especially on the alert for detection of any signs pointing toward siege of any of its

supported units. Should an outpost be found to be besieged the air forces can be used to effect its relief either by summoning reinforcements or by its own means.

An outstanding example of aviation's prowess to effect relief by its own means took place in Nicaragua during the siege of Ocotal, in which the rebels were driven off never to appear there again.

Another incident worthy of note was the relief of Captain Livingston's column. The following are extracts from a message pick up, written by the officer who succeeded to command after his senior officers had all been seriously wounded:

" \* \* \* The result of this (another attack by the enemy) will be disastrous \* \* \* Have six seriously wounded, at least three will die if transported to San Albino. \* \* \* I will evacuate tomorrow in accordance with your instructions \* \* \* but I most urgently request that planes cover me every minute of the time I am on the march. \* \* \* I cannot too urgently stress the fact that a concentration against me must be prevented. \* \* \* This is urgent."

In brief, aviation, under almost impossible conditions, carried in a relief commander, fourteen hundred pounds of provisions and medical supplies, brought out eighteen wounded, and extricated the column from its difficult situation, by air escort and control, without a single shot having been fired at it. At the same time aviation accounted for at least thirteen of the enemy by breaking up three ambush parties, which had outflanked the column.

A similar instance in Mesopotamia will serve to further illustrate this important function of the air forces:

"The Royal Air Force cooperated most brilliantly with the besieged garrison at Rumaitha in a pre-arranged raid in the town for food. Nine machines bombed and machine gunned the outskirts of the town while the garrison ransacked all known storehouses. The net result of the raid was eight days' rations which saved the garrison and enabled them to hold out until relieved."

Several days later:

"Airplanes, cooperating with the Rumaitha relief column, effectively bombed and machine-gunned the enemy. Throughout the withdrawal of the garrison airplanes cooperated successfully."—(Royal Air Force Communique No. 3, Operations in Mesopotamia).

(To be continued.)

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## THE BIRTH AND INFANCY OF MARINE AVIATION

(Continued from page 13)

edge, is a competent mechanic and electrician. It has occurred to me that if he were sent here he would have gained enough experience by the time I leave to be of value around the machines as a mechanic. Mr. Russell says that he will be glad to have him here. I spoke to Colonel Cole about this when I was in Washington and he said he saw no objection to it, provided you approved of it. If he is to be sent here, I would recommend that it be at once, so that he will get as much instruction as possible."

The result of the above letter was the following order, dated August 20, 1912, being issued to Colonel Barnett by Major-General Commandant Biddle:

"You will detail Sergeant James Maguire of your command for special temporary duty at the Aviation Field, Marblehead, Mass., and direct him to proceed to that place and report to First Lieutenant Alfred A. Cunningham, U. S. M. C. The staff returns of Sergeant Maguire will be retained at your post, and you will furnish him transportation and subsistence from Philadelphia to Marblehead, Mass., and inform him that while on duty at the latter place he will be paid commutation of rations at the rate of \$0.75 per diem, to take effect from the date he reports to Lieutenant Cunningham."

The muster roll of the Philadelphia Barracks for August, 1912, carried this note concerning Maguire:

"28-31, det. d., Aviation Field, Marblehead, Mass."

Captain Thomas W. Kinkaid, U. S. Navy, put the following on Lieutenant Cunningham's Report of Fitness, May 22 to September 30, 1912: "Under instruction, at Burgess Company and Curtis' Factory, in aeroplane construction, gasoline engines and flying. Finished the course very satisfactorily and has been flying alone for a month," and "has learned to operate Wright aeroplane." Captain John H. Gibbons, Superintendent of the Naval Academy, approved the report.

Lieutenant Cunningham wrote the Major General Commandant on September 22, 1912:

"My work at Marblehead is practically finished and instructions from the U. S. Navy Academy are expected for my return to the Aviation Camp, Annapolis, Md., as per my original orders. I have seen that Sergeant Maguire has received a very thorough course as aviator's mechanic, time considered, and has kept a careful notebook. Sergeant Maguire is carried on the rolls of the Marine Barracks, Philadelphia, Pa., as on special temporary duty at Marblehead, Mass. It is requested that he be ordered to the Aviation Camp, Annapolis, Md., to continue his present duties."

Orders were issued to Lieutenant Cunningham and he was back at the Annapolis Aviation Camp by October 1.

Captain Thomas R. Shearer, in this Magazine for December, 1928, wrote that "the first Marine Officer completed the course for designation as a Naval Aviator in 1912."

The present-day aviator with his perfectly designed plane and 650 horsepower motor with almost one hundred per cent reliability will wonder how the old 1912 crates flew as well as they did. When Lieutenant Cunningham reported back to the Navy Aviation Camp at Annapolis he was assigned the old Wright B-1 as his plane. This was the first plane purchased by the Navy and had been

wrecked and rebuilt several times. The original Wright 4-cylinder motor had served its usefulness and had been replaced by an air-cooled Gyro-motor, the cylinders of which rotated around the crankshaft instead of the crankshaft rotating inside of the engine. The plane had two windmill-like propellers driven by long chains and sprocket wheels. In flight these chains and propellers made more noise than the engine. The wings were flexible and were warped for lateral control. The pilot sat on a small seat with his feet on an outrigger, with nothing to obstruct the view or wind. He had the sensation of flying through the air with nothing supporting him but the small seat underneath. This Gyro-motor had its own ideas as to how long a flight should continue and rarely allowed the pilot any decision regarding it. When it decided it had flown long enough, it would sputter a few times and stop dead, and the pilot must get down as best he could. Each link of the chains driving the propellers contained a roller. Several of these rollers would break on each flight. As these broken links went over each sprocket there would be a bump and a jerk which gave the flexible wings a flapping motion for all the world like the plane had developed an ambition to be an ornithopter. Lieutenant Cunningham tested this plane for its best speed over a measured course and the figures showed that its best speed was a fraction over 40 miles per hour, which did not seem so slow to a pilot sitting out in front with nothing under him but a small seat and plenty of air. The motor was tested on a dynamometer and its normal power found to be 29 horsepower. A comparison of this plane with those of today illustrates strikingly how aviation has advanced. The pilots in these old planes were not strapped in until Ensign William D. Billingsley, of our Navy, was thrown out of his plane into Chesapeake Bay on June 20, 1913, and fell 1,600 feet to his death.

Another historic muster roll contains two names. It is that for the month of September, 1912, and contains, in addition to the name of Lieutenant Cunningham, that of Second Lieutenant Bernard Lewis Smith, with a notation reading: "18th to 30th on duty Aviation Camp," Annapolis, Md.

Lieutenant Smith had reported at the Aviation Camp at Annapolis on September 18, 1912, as the Second Marine Officer to take up aviation.

On November 4, 1912, Major General Commandant Biddle wrote to the Superintendent of the Naval Academy with reference to Sergeant Maguire as follows:

"Referring to the case of Sergeant James Maguire, I will thank you to direct his transfer from the Marine Barracks at the station under your command to the Aviation Camp. His staff returns should be handed to First Lieutenant Alfred A. Cunningham, U. S. M. C., on duty at the Aviation Camp, who will carry this man on the muster roll submitted by him. From and including the date of his reporting for duty at the Aviation Camp, Sergeant Maguire will, until further orders, be mustered on extra duty as mechanic at the rate of fifty cents per diem; this expense to be chargeable to the appropriation 'Contingent, Marine Corps.' Sergeant Maguire will also receive commutation of rations at the rate of seventy-five cents per diem."

The muster roll for November, 1912, at the Annapolis Aviation Camp gives us the names of Lieutenants Cunningham and Smith and that of Sergeant James Maguire.



The latter joined on November 6, 1912, from the Marine Barracks, Annapolis, and was "on extra duty as mechanic."

The first conception of Marine Corps Headquarters of Aviation was the assistance it might render in Advanced Base Operations. In his Annual Report Major-General Commandant William P. Biddle, dated October 17, 1912, wrote that "in view of the great benefit to an Advanced Base Force that might result from trained aviators, two officers and one man of the Marine Corps have been under instruction in aviation at the United States Naval Academy, Annapolis, Md., and it is hoped that during the coming year this number may be considerably increased."

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## THEY KNOW HOW TO DIE

(Continued from page 10)

Krim in Morocco, and today its officers and men are winning citations in sanguinary skirmishes at isolated points in North Africa, and against the Communist-led bands in Indo China.

Woven into this tenuous recital of its mighty deeds are the scores of campaigns in Africa, from coast to coast, against fierce Arabs and Moors, the fighting ladies of Dahomey's Amazon bands, the desert tribes, the mountain chiefs. This is a story in itself to thrill one, an unending war of swift forays, merciless marches, of convoys and ambushes, punitive columns and sieges, with its hand-maidens of thirst and privation, of pursuit on foot, horse and camel, and of cholera and other deadly epidemics. It is a story of hand-to-hand conflict against a foe that neither asked nor gave mercy.

Hand in hand with this century-old battle against warrior tribes the Legion has built as it marched, roads and bridges, aqueducts and fortresses, towns and its mother city, Sidi-del-Abbes. And in this century of brilliant service its men of fifty-two nationalities have given prodigally of their blood not always for France but always for the Legion.

The Legion unveiled its impressive monument to its dead in the great barracks square at Sidi-del-Abbes in April. At its base, facing outward, stand the heroic figures of four legionnaires, in the various uniforms of its hundred years of existence. Resting on carved wreaths of laurel is a huge globe of the world, typifying the sphere of the Legion's activities. Carved on the monument are the simple words: "The Legion to its Dead, 1831-1931." Legionnaires quarried its white marble on the edge of the Sahara, and a famous French sculptor executed it. On the day of its unveiling, Camerone Day, detachments of the Legion, in a score of uniforms that spanned the century, filed past in review. There, before the massed legionnaires of the First Regiment drawn up in immobile proud ranks, the roll of the immortal garrison was called and an officer replied, as each name was called: "Dead on the field of honor!" In similar fashion the men of the three infantry regiments in Morocco, the battalions in Indo China and Syria, the cavalry regiment in Tunisia, and the mounted detachments in the Sahara were drawn up to render their homage to the dead of the Legion, and to keep burning the flames of their unquenchable spirit.

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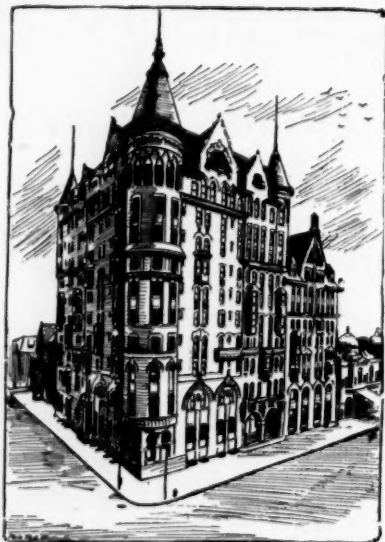
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# We Leave the Virgin Islands

By THE HISTORIAN

Over fourteen years of garrisoning the Virgin Islands came to an end this year of 1931 for the American Marines.

Many Marines visited the Virgin Islands during the *Old Twenties* when the Navy and Marines were wiping out piracy in the West Indies and Caribbean. In February of 1825 the Marines of the *Grampus* assisted in subduing a destructive fire which broke out in Saint Thomas.

In 1844 the officers of the *Potomac* were entertained at Christianstadt by a "fair display of Danish beauty, fashion and manners." And from time to time since then, on vessels of the Navy, the Marines have appeared at the Virgin Islands.

On the afternoon of November 18, 1867, there occurred the most violent earthquake that had theretofore been known in the history of the Islands. The USS. *Monongahela* (Commodore S. B. Bissell) was at anchor off the town of Frederiksted, Saint Croix, the weather being very calm, a violent trembling of the ship was observed. Shortly after, a wall of water, twenty-five to thirty feet high, carried the *Monongahela* over the warehouses and landed her, perfectly upright, in the first street fronting the bay, directly in front of the office where Alexander Hamilton served in his boyhood as a clerk. The reflux of this wave carried her toward the beach, leaving her nearly perpendicular on a coral reef, where she quickly keeled over to an angle of fifteen degrees. She was repaired and gotten off safely. On May 21, 1868, she steamed out of the bay and reached New York on June 1. The USS. *De Soto* and USS. *Susquehanna*, at anchor in the Islands, had narrow escapes. The Marines of the *Susquehanna* were commanded by Brevet Captain P. C. Pope and Captain J. A. Burroughs (who died on November 27, 1867). Those of the *De Soto* were commanded by Second Lieut. H. R. Bigelow. Those of the *Monongahela* were in charge of Orderly Sergeant Henry Brower.

Sixty-six years ago, in 1865, negotiations for the acquisition of these islands were started during the administration of President Abraham Lincoln. Secretary Seward offered Denmark five million dollars. Denmark countered with fifteen millions. Seward came back with an offer of seven and a half millions for Saint Thomas and Saint John. Denmark agreed, but in 1870 the United States Senate refused to accept the bargain. From 1898 to 1902 another effort was made to secure the islands for a naval and coaling station. The price was five millions for the entire group. The United States Senate ratified this time, but Denmark balked. Futile attempts to reopen negotiations occurred in 1911 and 1912. The United States, finally, in 1917 purchased the three islands of Saint Thomas, Saint John and Saint Croix, for twenty-five million dollars. The Treaty was ratified by the United States Senate on January 17, 1917.

President Woodrow Wilson renamed them "The Virgin Islands of the United States" and directed the Navy to administer the government of the islands until such time as Congress should establish a permanent government.

The Act of Congress approved March 3, 1917, by which the Government of the Virgin Islands was organiz-

ed, expressly continued in effect all local laws that were in force at the time of the transfer and not incompatible with the changed sovereignty.

The first Marines to arrive was the 21st Company of the Third Regiment under Captain Edward Shippen Willing, with First Lieutenant Lloyd L. Leech as junior officer and Raymond L. Lacy as First Sergeant. They embarked on the *Hancock* off Santo Domingo City on March 29, 1917, disembarked at Saint Thomas and embarked aboard the *Olympia*, and disembarked at Frederiksted and Christiansted on March 31.

By presidential appointment, Commander Edwin T. Pollock, United States Navy, represented this Government at the ceremonies at Saint Thomas and took possession, on March 31, 1917, of the islands in the name of the United States. Guards from the Danish cruiser *Valkyrien* and the USS. *Hancock* were present, as well as the officials of the Danish Government and the consular representatives of other nations.

The Danish acting governor of the islands, Captain Henri Konow, Royal Danish Navy, commander of the cruiser *Valkyrien*, in the name of His Majesty King Christian the Tenth of Denmark, proclaimed the islands transferred to the United States, upon which the guards of honor presented arms, the Danish national flag was lowered while the band played the Danish national anthem, and a salute of 21 guns was fired by the *Valkyrien* and the *Hancock*. Commander Pollock, on behalf of the President of the United States, declared the islands to be in the possession of the United States, the American Flag was hoisted while the band played the American national anthem, and a salute of 21 guns was fired from the saluting battery and the men-of-war. Commander Pollock then read the proclamation of the President and announced that, by order of the President, the islands were to be known as "The Virgin Islands of the United States of America." The commander stated that he had been directed to assume the position of acting governor, and in a brief address to the people assembled said:

"While the old order changeth and His Majesty King Christian the Tenth of Denmark and his advisors have deemed it wise to permit the sovereignty of these islands to pass from the Kingdom of Denmark to the Republic of the United States of America, it is earnestly hoped and prayed that no one, and, above all, the people of these islands, will ever have reason to regret the change."

Formal ceremonies also took place at Frederiksted, where the United States was represented by Commander B. B. Bierer, commanding officer of the *Olympia*, and at Christiansted, where First Lieut. Edward S. Willing, United States Marine Corps, was in command of a detachment of Marines. Second Lieutenant DeWitt Peck commanded the Marines of the *Olympia*.

The President, in accordance with the authority conferred upon him by the act of Congress March 3, 1917, to provide a temporary government for the islands, appointed Rear-Admiral James H. Oliver governor, and early in April Admiral Oliver assumed the duties of the office. He was accompanied by Major Jesse F. Dyer, of the Marines, who served as his Aide.

"At the time of the transfer of these islands to the



United States there was threatened disorder amongst the natives of Saint Croix, but this unrest has apparently disappeared," wrote Rear-Admiral Oliver in his Annual Report of September 21, 1918.

Major Jay M. Salladay, U. S. Marines, who was detailed to command the Virgin Island Marines, soon arrived. He and his detachment sailed from Santo Domingo City aboard the *Prairie* on April 19, 1917, and disembarked two days later at Saint Thomas. Captain Charles S. McReynolds with the 56th Company and Captain Roy D. Lowell with the 14th Company accompanied Major Salladay. Captain Edward S. Willing with the 21st Company was already in the Virgin Islands.

Lieutenant-Colonel Raymond B. Sullivan, arriving on the *Kittery*, succeeded Lieutenant-Colonel Salladay on May 3, 1919.

Congress passed a Joint Resolution in January, 1920, for a commission of three members of the Senate and the House to visit Virgin Islands. Senators Kenyon, Edge and Gay and Congressmen Towner, Garrett and Campbell were appointed.

The Secretary of the Navy designated Rear Admiral James H. Oliver, U. S. Navy, and Major Jesse F. Dyer, U. S. Marine Corps, to accompany the commission on its visit to the Islands. The Commission arrived on the USS. *Dolphin* at Saint Thomas on February 5, 1920, and left on February 10, 1920. The Commission reported that it was "under obligation to Major Dyer, who accompanied the Commission as aid to Admiral Oliver. His service with Admiral Oliver during the latter's incumbency made his information and advice valuable to the Commission."

Mr. Daniel Henderson, a special correspondent of McClure's Magazine, who visited the Virgin Islands early in 1920, wrote that "no American is more needed in the Virgin Islands than the Marine; no one is wanted more by their white inhabitants."

Judge Towner reported:

"The present government of the islands as administered by the Navy was a special pride to us. I want to say that the Committee was unanimously and enthusiastically of the belief that the administration of the islands by the Navy had been not only a marked but splendid success in every way, and those who came before us to testify regarding the matter, apprehensive that the government might be changed, were very strong in their protestations against any change in the administration of the government. \* \* \* The Navy is doing a splendid work there in every regard."

Captain E. E. Kittelle relieved Captain J. W. Oman as Governor of Virgin Islands on April 26, 1921.

On June 1, 1921, Major (he had lost war-time rank) Sullivan was detached and proceeded to the United States on the *Henderson*. Major Sullivan was succeeded in command by Lieutenant Colonel Theodore E. Backstrom.

Captain Henry H. Hough relieved Captain Kittelle as Governor of the Virgin Islands on September 16, 1922.

"The Government continues to be of a temporary nature," reported Secretary of the Navy Denby in his Annual Report dated November 15, 1922.

Secretary of the Navy Edwin Denby, Congressmen, Brigadier General Rufus H. Lane, Major Maurice E. Shearer (aide to Secretary Denby), newspapermen and others arrived at Saint Thomas aboard the USS. *Henderson* on April 8, 1923. They left the same evening.

Lieutenant Colonel Thomas H. Brown relieved

Lieutenant-Colonel Backstrom in command of the Barracks on June 25, 1923.

Captain Philip Williams relieved Hough as Governor of Virgin Islands on December 3, 1923.

The Virgin Islands were visited in January, 1924, by a Federal Commission of which Mr. George H. Woodson was chairman.

Lieutenant Colonel Brown died while in command of the Marines at the Virgin Islands on August 19, 1924. He had been placed on the sick list three days before. His body was transported to the United States on the *Kittery*.

Captain Harold D. Shannon was temporarily in command from August 17, 1924, until Lieutenant Colonel Richard S. Hooker arrived on September 18, 1924.

On the evening of August 28, 1924, a hurricane of typical West Indian variety, struck Saint Thomas and continued throughout the night.

Captain Millard E. Trench succeeded Captain Philip Williams, as Governor, on September 11, 1925.

Lieutenant Colonel Hooker was succeeded by Major Walter N. Hill on April 13, 1926.

Captain Martin E. Trench, United States Navy (retired), continued as Governor of the Virgin Islands until his death, which occurred on January 6, 1927, while on leave in continental United States. Captain Waldo Evans, United States Navy (retired), was appointed governor and took the oath of office on March 1, 1927.

An outstanding event of great moment to the people of the Virgin Islands occurred when the President approved the act of Congress of February 25, 1927, which granted them citizenship.

Major Hill was detached on June 17, 1928. He was temporarily succeeded by Captain Tracy G. Hunter who was relieved by Lieutenant Colonel James J. Meade on September 4, 1928.

The Virgin Islands were visited by a hurricane of great violence on September 13, 1928.

On February 3, 1929 Sergeant Ezra L. Ewing and four privates left Saint Thomas by order of Governor Waldo Evans on the S. S. *Catherine* to establish a Marine guard at the radio station in San Juan.

The Marine post on Saint Croix was ordered to be reduced on August 1, 1929, to six caretakers and one non-commissioned officer.

On February 2, 1931, Secretary of the Navy Charles F. Adams wrote to "All Bureaus and Officers:"

"It is proposed to transfer in the near future the administration of the Virgin Islands from the Navy Department to the Department of the Interior.

"The policy of the Navy Department with regard to the naval establishment in the Virgin Islands will be to reduce all naval activities to a minimum, retaining in the Virgin Islands in an active status only the radio station and personnel necessary to care for naval property.

"As fast as the naval personnel can be dispensed with they will be withdrawn and in no case will they remain longer than six months from the date of transfer of administration to the Interior Department.

"This advance information is given in order to avoid unnecessary expenditure of naval funds and to avoid the transportation to the Virgin Islands of reliefs for the naval and Marine personnel now there."

President Herbert Hoover appointed Dr. Paul M. Pearson as the first civilian governor of the Virgin Islands.

When Dr. Pearson relieved Captain Evans as Gover-

nor the latter continued on as Commandant of the Naval Station to close up naval matters.

President Hoover arrived at the Virgin Islands on March 25, 1931, and remained there for five hours. He was received by Governor Pearson and Captain Evans. The officers, including Lieutenant Colonel Edward W. Sturdevant and other Marine officers, were in line and saluted the President when the Marine Guard under First Lieutenant Julian R. Marshall presented arms.

Lieutenant Colonel Sturdevant left the Virgin Islands aboard the *Kittery* on March 31, 1931, leaving Captain Samuel C. Cumming in command.

The evacuation of the Virgin Islands by the Marines was completed by the end of May, 1931.

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# An Introduction to the Tactics and Technique of Small Wars

By MAJ. HAROLD H. UTLEY, U.S.M.C.

THE Navy, of which the Marine Corps is a part, is frequently called upon to undertake warlike operations when a state of war does not exist. One of the fundamental functions of the Navy is to safeguard American interests abroad, a duty which often necessitates a display of force, and sometimes, actual fighting. In most cases these operations are conducted for the purpose of restoring peace in a revolution-torn country and involve armed conflict with one of the political parties while the other party is not openly hostile to our forces.

The Marine Corps has as its secondary function (i. e. task): "As an adjunct of the Navy, to provide and maintain forces \* \* \*. (b) For emergency service in time of peace for the protection of the interests of the United States in foreign countries."

It is obvious that this subject is of prime importance to officers of the Marine Corps, and Naval officers since they may, either as commanders of squadrons and ships supporting such operations or as staff officers of such commanders, find it necessary to pass judgment upon plans for this type of operations, should likewise have more than a hazy knowledge of what has occurred in the past; and finally, it is believed that officers of the Army cannot afford to wholly disregard this subject even though it is fundamentally a function of the Marine Corps, although it is true that the landing of a single armed soldier on foreign soil constitutes an act of war, whereas sailors and marines can operate all over the same country and suffer a considerable number of casualties while the nation concerned and our own are still at peace.

This very fact—that no state of war exists—coupled with that mentioned before—that only a portion of the inhabitants are hostile—frequently gives to the operations a character differing radically from that where a formal state of war exists, they complicate the situation immeasurably.

Although each situation presents its own peculiar problems, they all have certain characteristics in common, and these can be studied and prepared for. The frequency with which they have occurred emphasizes the importance of making careful studies, of selecting most appropriate organization and equipment, and of undergoing adequate training, in order that we may be properly prepared when we encounter them.

This type of operations has been designated by many writers by the title "SMALL WARS," a term which has no connection whatsoever with the size of the force involved, the extent of the theater of operations, nor the length of time required to bring the operation to a close. In spite of its rather general use, the choice of the term does not appear to be a particularly happy one. Colonel C. E. Callwell, British Army, whose book, "Small Wars, Their Principles and Practices," has been a standard text on the subject for over a quarter of a century, says that the term is used "in default of a better one." In some cases it appears difficult to define precisely the line of demarka-

tion between "Small Wars" and major conflicts, but generally speaking Small Wars are those operations in which a trained regular force is opposed by an irregular and comparatively untrained enemy. All of our campaigns against the Indians, the Boxer Rebellion, the Philippine Insurrection, the Punitive Expedition into Mexico in 1916, and the numerous campaigns and expeditions of the Marine Corps—except when serving with the Army in the Mexican and World Wars—fall under this category.

Replete as the records of the Marine Corps are with valuable historical examples, but few real studies seem to have been made of them. Prior to the World War we were satisfied to learn by experience, or perhaps it would be more accurate to say we learned by precept and example from our commanders and senior lieutenants. In the days when Expeditions were the rule, and each year saw at least one Expedition depart from Norfolk or Philadelphia or Mare Island, that method was sufficient. But in the last ten years that has not been the situation, and not so very long ago every company officer in a good sized brigade was on his first expedition as an officer!

Then, too, we must realize that the distribution of high powered and automatic weapons has progressed to the point where it is the rule rather than the exception to find our potential opponents well armed with modern infantry weapons including high powered rifles, automatics, hand grenades and machine guns.

Small Wars may be divided into three broad classes according to the purpose for which they are waged. These are:

Campaigns of Conquest or Annexation.

Campaigns for the suppression of insurrection or lawlessness.

Punitive Expeditions.

This classification will determine to a degree, but not entirely, the nature and the extent of the operations to be undertaken. In thus limiting, or qualifying, the above statement I am not following the reasoning of a number of eminent writers on this subject, but I believe that an examination of our own history will justify the qualification.

Our experience in Small Wars of the first class—Conquest or Annexation—has been limited, and probably will continue so, although some of our Indian Campaigns fall into this category. In this class of operations the objective is clearly defined, and is the defeat, capture or destruction of the opponent's armed force, together with the occupation of his capital and other important centers, his vital areas.

Our forces, and especially our Navy and Marine Corps, have on numerous occasions, engaged in Small Wars of the second class—Suppression of Lawlessness or Insurrection (which of course includes the protection of life and property of foreign residents of the country or area in question)—and in all probability will continue to do so many times in the future. In some instances the mere occupation by an adequate force,

sometimes as small as a section of the affected area will suffice, as for example the landing of two companies of Marines under (then) Major S. D. Butler, U.S.M.C., at Bluefields, Nicaragua, in 1910. In other cases it will be necessary to overrun the entire country, as in Haiti in 1915, or even to establish Military Government as in Santo Domingo in 1916 in order to carry out our mission.

In Small Wars of the third class—Punitive Expeditions—our experience has likewise been limited, but within recent years United States forces have engaged in two, and these differed widely in the extent of operations necessary and in the objective. In the landing at Vera Cruz, Mexico, in 1914, the seizure of that port and of a small amount of territory surrounding it was sufficient. In the case of the Pershing Punitive Expedition into Mexico the object sought was the destruction or breaking up of Villa's band or bands, and this required almost a year and the operation covered considerable territory.

Incidentally I found an account of one landing by Marines in foreign territory which probably falls under the third class, but is, I believe, unique in the annals of this or any other nation. On 21 September 1870 Lieutenant Cochrane, U.S.M.C., landed at Honolulu, Hawaii, with "a corporal's guard" of Marines carrying only their sidearms (bayonets). They attacked the United States Consulate, overpowered the American Consul and the Vice Consul who offered some resistance, and halfmasted the colors over the consulate. These American officials had refused to half mast their colors in spite of the insistence of the Senior Naval Officer Present, Captain Truxton of the U. S. S. Jamestown, claiming that they had no official knowledge of the reason for half masting the flag and that the consul was senior to Captain Truxton anyhow. This incident\* has no bearing on these studies, of course, and is mentioned merely as an example of the wide variety of causes which have led to the landing of Marines on foreign soil.

The Rules of Land Warfare for the guidance of the combatants in Small Wars, or "wars that are not wars," have not been, and probably never will be written. When a situation arises not contemplated by the instructions issued, the only sound guide to action is a thorough knowledge of the mission of the whole force coupled with knowledge of the methods that have been used in the past by civilized nations in like situations. These comprise:

The killing or wounding or capture of those opposed to us and the destruction of their property;

The destruction of the property of those who aid or abet those hostile to us;

The laying waste of entire sections inhabited by people generally supporting those hostile to us;

The removal and dispersion of all of the inhabitants of an area of unrest.

The great disadvantage in the application of these measures, excepting the first, lies in the fact that their application will probably exasperate the people as a whole against us, and tend to forfeit their friendship permanently, as well as stir up more or less trouble for us among neighboring nations and at home.

It would seem therefore that the first of the measures listed above would be the proper method to pursue, and that if in any given case harsher measures seem to be indicated it would devolve upon the more experienced officers, the seniors, to accept the responsibility of their rank, and after a careful estimate of all of the factors involved, to determine what should be done, always bearing in mind, of course, that the safety of our own troops is paramount. And it is likewise incumbent upon the juniors, especially when on detached duty, "on their own," to loyally carry out the spirit of such decisions of their seniors.

The late Lieutenant Colonel Ellis in his article\* on the subject lays down this sound doctrine:

"That the friendship of the people of any occupied nation should be forfeited by the adoption of any unnecessarily harsh measures, is avowedly contrary to the policy of the United States."

When Uncle Sam occupies the territory of a small nation he wants to enforce his will, but he does not want any trouble, that is, anything that will cause undue comment among his own or foreign people. Such comments may not only cause countless "Investigations" at a more or less later date (there have been seven in Haiti in the fourteen years of occupation), but what is more important from our point of view, such comments in the Halls of Congress and in the press of our own and nearby countries are interpreted by the natives as having far greater weight than they really possess, are taken indeed as an indication of strong support for the forces arrayed against us, and thus serve to intensify and prolong the opposition we must overcome. Of course the leaders know better, but they are skilled in the use of propaganda for their own ends, and there will always be found so-called Americans who under one pretext or another will assist in originating and spreading tales of alleged "atrocities" said to have been committed by our troops. If we were at war, if the Laws of War applied, we could justly charge them—the originators and the publishers—with giving aid and comfort to the enemy. But in Small Wars we are at peace no matter how thickly the bullets are flying.

We must never, in our zeal for the perfection of plans for a Small War, overlook the fact that behind and over us is that force known as "Public Opinion in the United States." Colonel Ellis in his article referred to above discusses this factor as follows:

"Now this work of creating order out of chaos and showing small nations the way they should go is justly considered to be accomplished to the satisfaction of everybody, if it were not for the peculiar attitude of the American people themselves. As it is, just about the time that all is going well—when the ex-generals are busily engaged in weaving wonderful straw hats in the local fortaleza, and the farmers are planting the largest crop acreage in the history of the country, and the kids are all going to school, and the national lottery is being run on the square, and the anxious expression has faded from the faces of everybody in general, somebody rises up and yells in print: 'Marines are down in Jungleland! and killed a man in a war! and we didn't know anything about it!' Presto, the people mill around like liaison officers in a world war

\*The foregoing resume is based on an article appearing in the Proceedings of the U. S. Naval Institute, Vol. 55, No. 314 April, 1929.

\*Bush Brigades, by Lieut. Col. E. H. Ellis, USMC, Marine Corps Gazette, March 1921.



and inaugurate such a campaign of investigation, castigation, and restoration that the 'Hired Hessians' are forced to do the job over again—or yet."

As an illustration of the application of this factor let us examine two or three examples. In 1920 or thereabouts during the Second Haitian Insurrection, a number of bandits were located on the top of a hill between Le Trou and Fort Liberte in northern Haiti. (See Plate 1-2.) At the time two planes were based on Cap Haitien and both the senior aviator and the senior gendarme officer believed that aerial machine-gunning would have but little effect but that bombing would do the trick. The next higher commanders concurred, but the plan was disapproved at Port Au Prince. The planes machinegunned the hill and gendarme patrols attacked up every known trail with the result that the hill was occupied and one dead bandit found! But that particular moment was not one in which to lay ourselves open to the charge of bombing "innocent" inhabitants, no matter how justified the act might be under the Rules of War. The possible local success had to be sacrificed for the good of the whole command and of the Service in general. It was merely our time honored comrade "The Exigencies of the Service" in another guise.

Major Rowell reports\* another and more striking instance:

"Early in February following the abandonment of Chipote by the outlaw forces, the undersigned leading a fully armed air patrol, discovered Sandino and his main column consisting of 150 armed men in the town of San Rafael Del Norte. As the horses were picketed and the bandits gathered in houses about the plaza, the opportunity to strike a most effective blow was very great. The planes flew within a few feet of the ground while the pilots and observers looked into the muzzles of the enemy rifles, but not a shot was fired. This rare opportunity was passed up because it was the policy of the Commanding General to avoid the possibility of injuring the lives and property of innocent persons by refraining from attacks on towns. It so happened that the radical writer, Mr. Beals, was present interviewing Sandino at the very moment the planes arrived. At a later date I met Mr. Beals and urged him to include this incident, in which he was spared the danger of losing his life, among the list of 'atrocities' he was known to be seeking for publication. However, he found it convenient to omit this incident from the published account of his interview."

Likewise, in spite of its evident value in certain situations especially in aerial attacks, the use of any form of chemicals was forbidden in the Second Brigade in Nicaragua in 1928-1929, lest the attitude of our government be misconstrued. Even tear gas was included in the restriction. The five Central American States have signed a convention prohibiting the use of any form of Chemical Warfare among themselves, and it was felt best to respect this convention, and that the use of any form of chemicals was sure to be reported, and in uninformed or deliberately false accounts be cited as an example of the most inhumane tactics.

I cite these instances to illustrate and emphasize this point:

\*Annual Report of Aircraft Squadrons, Second Brigade, U. S. Marine Corps, 1 July 1927—20 June 1928, by Major R. E. Rowell, USMC., Marine Corps Gazette, December 1928.

MEASURES JUSTIFIABLE IN A REGULAR WAR, TACTICALLY SOUND, AND PROBABLY THE MOST EFFICIENT AVAILABLE, MUST FREQUENTLY BE ELIMINATED FROM THE PLAN OF CAMPAIGN AS NOT BEING IN ACCORD WITH PUBLIC POLICY IN THE EXISTING SITUATION.

It would be well to bear this point in mind when we are formulating plans, and also when engaged around the mess table in the time honored sport of "Winning the War" and "Panning the Old Man" for not adopting more severe measures.

Some writers have held that in Small Wars only a limited number of the principles of war apply. The implication is that the remainder may be disregarded.

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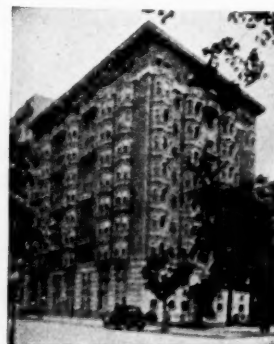
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With such a doctrine we cannot agree, although of course in each situation arising in Small Wars, as in every other situation, whether in the map problem room or in the field, some of the Principles will predominate. It is believed that a careful analysis of those occasions where it is alleged that the Principles were disregarded will show that the Principles as a whole were not violated with success. The fact that due to difference in weapons, terrain, hostile methods of fighting, etc., the manner of applying the principles—the Tactics—will sometimes vary from the accepted doctrine for Major Warfare must not be confused with the non-application of the Principles of War.

Any Small War prosecuted to the point of the complete occupation of the country will encounter the following sequence of hostile operations:

- A more or less serious attempt to prevent the landing or movement across the border.
- Some resistance at the outskirts of, or in the city followed by a dash for the inaccessible portions of the country.
- Mobilization and operations of small bands acting generally in concert, if not under a single acknowledged leader.
- Guerrilla operations of small groups of outlaws (ladrones, cacos, bandits) raiding, robbing, and destroying wherever opportunity offers, but rarely engaging in combat unless in comparatively overwhelming strength, from an ambush, or when surprised.

Of these the first is least frequently encountered.

From our point of view our own operations in Small Wars divide themselves into phases which may be considered as analogous to the phases of the development of infantry for combat.

- Preparation.* All movements, etc., prior to entering the territory of the foreign country, i. e. landing or crossing the border. *Forming for Attack.*
- Landing.* Capture or occupation of one or more ports or border towns. *Assault.*
- Hostilities.* Destruction of hostile forces and occupation of vital areas. *Advancing the Attack.*
- Pacification.* Running down guerrilla bands and more completely occupying the country. *Pursuit.*

After which it passes out of the province of these studies and into the realm of Military Government, or else resolves itself into a matter of "sitting on the lid" until the force is withdrawn.

In our operations in the past many instances will be found where one or more of these phases was non-existent, but the sequence of those that did occur does not vary.





## Salient Haitian Facts

By COLONEL FRANK E. EVANS, U. S. Marine Corps

(Continued from the February Gazette)

THE main export crops of Haiti are coffee, cotton, and sugar. Coffee, introduced from Martinique by the Jesuits in 1733, is now the principal export of Haiti. The average export crop is 80,000,000 pounds. The export tax is 2.3 to 2.8 cents per pound but proposals have been made to the Government for the replacement of this tax by internal taxes. Haitian coffee commands a premium of about five cents per pound, or 30%, over Rio No. 7. The best grades come from higher altitudes where there are extensive areas of undeveloped coffee land. Coffee requires a rainfall of fifty or more inches; and at lower elevations must be shaded for good results. It is grown, harvested, dried and hulled by peasant farmers, and cleaned and sacked for shipment by dealers. There is opportunity for improved methods in the culture of coffee in Haiti and in methods of commercial handling.

Cotton was found in Haiti by Columbus, and has been an important export from early times. The quality of Haitian cotton is not uniform, varying from short, brown, coarse fiber of low grade to long, white, fine and silky fiber of superior quality. From this mixture it is possible, by individual plant selection, to isolate superior strains, multiply them and greatly improve the crop. In this way, the famous Sea Island cotton has been developed, and, since the destruction of Sea Island in the United States by boll weevil, other superior strains may be developed from native cotton in Haiti.

Haitian cotton is well adapted to the plains of the country, where it may be grown, usually without irrigation. It is perennial and after planting requires only to be picked and pruned each year. It is remarkably free from plant diseases, and insect pests inflict comparatively little damage upon it. It is grown mainly by small farmers, sold by them to roadside speculators, and by these to commercial houses that gin, bale and ship it; and which then manufacture cooking compounds and soap from the seed. It yields from 200 pounds to 500 pounds of seed cotton per acre, giving about 30 per cent of fiber. This low yield is, however, partly compensated by the very low cost of growing.

Cotton culture in Haiti may at this time be greatly improved by breeding improved strains, distributing the seed, and thus raising the value of the exported fiber. The manufacture of by-products from the seed offers additional opportunities.

Sugar cane, introduced in early colonial times, has always been an important crop in Haiti. Mosaic disease has seriously reduced the yield in recent years, but this is being overcome by the introduction of mosaic resistant varieties from Java and elsewhere. Heavy tonnages, comparable to those of Cuba, are obtained and, with the use of fertilizers, should be improved upon.

Sugar is a crop requiring plantation management of extensive areas of land, and large invest-

ments in manufacturing facilities. The minutely divided condition of the land in river valleys suitable for cane culture is an obstacle to the growth of the industry, but occasional opportunities exist for the necessary control of large areas.

The Haitian American Sugar Company, with a factory capacity of 300,000 tons of cane per season, are the only large operators in Haiti; but there are many small mills that make crude brown sugar, and that operate distilleries for the manufacture of rum.

Cacao is a potentially important crop in some parts of Haiti, but unskilled preparation, poor quality of the product, and the attacks of rats, have greatly reduced the culture of cacao. It still figures as an export crop, however, and is capable of again becoming an important industry with the necessary attention to details of culture and to preparation of the beans for export.

### Crops for Domestic Use

The duty of 5 to 5.45 cents per pound recently imposed on tobacco leaf has stimulated the culture of this crop, which is easily grown throughout the year in Haiti.

At present, quantity is sought and the comparatively coarse native types are mainly grown, largely for cigarette manufacture. Finer grades are possible, however, and will soon be in demand as the market becomes saturated with inferior grades. This is a crop best suited to plantation management, but it is also considerably grown by peasants for personal use.

### Livestock

With the exception of fighting cocks and turkeys, the quality of livestock in Haiti is capable of much improvement. Horses and donkeys are small, poorly bred and badly cared for. Cattle are better, but originate largely in Santo Domingo, which devotes skilful attention to the livestock industries. Ordinary Spanish goats are kept everywhere, usually as household animals; sheep are rare. Hogs have reverted to the "razor-back" type usual to a half-wild condition.

Oxen are almost the only draft animals of Haiti; and donkeys are the main riding and pack animals. Mules, as yet rare, could replace in part both of these, being faster than oxen and stronger than donkeys. Stallions and jacks, imported since the occupation, and humane treatment enforced where possible, are slowly improving the character and condition of these lines of livestock.

The cattle industry, also, with orderly conditions in the range districts, is making gradual recovery. Improved ranch and range management, and better stock are the lines of advance along which the Service Technique is working. A modern dairy at Damien is now in operation.

In general, under conditions of land tenure in

Haiti, the cattle business must continue in the hands of small owners.

### General Conditions

Haiti is agriculturally well-to-do, with good soils, a favorable climate, and abundant water supply. Breadstuffs, vegetables and fruits abundantly provide for the needs of the resident population and export crops of coffee, cotton, cacao, sugar provide for a favorable trade balance. Employment is provided to some extent by sugar plantations, by public works, and in the larger towns, but the peasantry is, in the main, independent and self-supporting.

### Minerals

Iron deposits are known to exist in various parts of the Republic. The deposits so far examined by mining engineers, however, have shown ore of little commercial value or in non-paying quantities.

Copper deposits are found at several places, the most valuable being the contact-metamorphic deposits and veins of the Terre-Neuve district. Aside from those in the Terre-Neuve district, it is probable that few, if any, of the veins contain sufficient copper to be profitably mined.

Deposits of manganese have been discovered in the communes of Gros Morne and Jacmel, but these deposits have not been prospected and the known ore is not of commercial grade.

No commercial deposits of lead and zinc have been found, although some zinc blende and galena exist in the copper veins at Terre-Neuve.

Silver is found in many of the copper veins of the Republic, but usually in small quantities. Some small copper veins in the Terre-Neuve district contain a substantial proportion of silver.

The quartz veins at some places in the northern part of the Republic are said to contain native gold. Assays of ore taken from the copper deposits at Terre-Neuve yielded small quantities of gold, and traces of gold are found in most of the copper veins of the Republic. Gold is reported to occur in the sands of rivers in various parts of the country.

Platinum and iridosmium are reported to occur in some quartz veins in the northern part of the country, but no attempt has been made to exploit the deposits.

Native mercury is reported to have been found in the vicinity of Mole Saint Nicolas. Cinnabar is said to occur in several places in the Republic.

There is reported to be a small deposit of sand containing chromite in the central part of Ile-a-Vaches, off the southern coast near Cayes.

### Forests

It is probable that Haiti originally contained vast areas of valuable forests, a great part of which, except in relatively inaccessible locations, have been gradually destroyed. The mahogany from which colonial furniture was made came principally from this island, and even today mahogany grown in Haiti is the standard by which other varieties are judged, being unequaled in strength and beauty of grain. There are no forests of mahogany remaining in Haiti, but supplies of logs

sufficient for local needs continue to find their way to the larger towns.

The so-called Haitian oak (a species of catalpa) is also used locally for furniture, but, in spite of its rich golden brown color and other excellent characteristics, has never been exported in quantity. Other cabinet woods found in limited amounts include satinwood, Spanish cedar, "bois rouge," "dammarie," "tavernon" and "ebene vert."

It is, however, for its lignum-vitae and logwood that Haiti is best known silviculturally. The former, renowned for its hardness, weight, and self-lubricating qualities, is still plentiful in certain of the semi-arid portions of the country, though its exports are diminishing. Logwood is not native to Haiti, having been brought in by the colonists at an early date, and has now spread over vast regions. Supplies of logwood are still large, in spite of the constant utilization over many years. They are coming to be less accessible. Logwood yields the very best dye for black silk, the only natural dye which has not yielded to the aniline dyes. Thousands of tons of logs are exported yearly, mainly through the ports of Cape Haitien and Saint Marc. Through proper conservation, its rapid growth and easily satisfied silvicultural requirements would maintain for logwood the present dominant position of Haiti in the logwood trade.

Throughout the well-watered lowlands the massive columnar trunks and spreading fronds of the royal palms constitute a conspicuous feature of the landscape. No tree is more useful locally. Its trunk is rived into boards to sheath houses. Its fronds are used for thatching. Its succulent central tip yields a delicious salad material.

On the higher mountain ranges are found great areas of yellow pine forests, most of which, owing to their present inaccessibility, are still in a virgin condition. It is not uncommon to find pines over six feet in diameter and sixty feet to the first limb. As the country develops, these pine reservoirs will be tapped to replace some of the millions of feet of imported pine lumber. The Haitian pine is almost identical with the slash pine of Florida, which is a heavy turpentine yielder, and experiments have been begun to ascertain if a commercial turpentine industry can be established.

Forest products locally used comprise firewood, charcoal, railway ties, timbers for construction purposes, fence posts, and miscellaneous household supplies. No organized lumbering industry exists. The present semi-denuded state of much of Haiti's forest lands is due not to cutting for utilization but to the wasteful methods of peasant agriculture. Patches of mountain slopes are cleared, kept in crops for a few years, and then abandoned. Great areas now in brush should be reforested to provide lumber and other forest products, to serve as shade for coffee, to conserve streamflow and to prevent erosion.

Haiti has an unusually rich flora. The great variations in types of soil, in rainfall, and in altitude, make the country a botanist's paradise. Already several hundred species of trees have been collected and identified, many of them unknown outside of Haiti. Their woods range from the lightest to the heaviest, from the weakest to the



strongest, with every graduation of grain and texture, and through almost a rainbow of colors. Many are rarely beautiful in foliage and flower. This native flora is being extended and enriched by nursery grown exotics from all parts of the tropics, such as rubber, cinchona, tung oil, Australian pine and eucalyptus.

#### Fisheries

Fishing grounds are found along the entire coastline, and fleets of small boats stand out daily to the reefs from Port au Prince and other ports. Their catch includes red snappers, Spanish mackerel, barracuda and a host of other edible varieties. While no figures are available as to the total annual catch, it reaches a considerable tonnage. No attempt is made to refrigerate or cure the fish. Haitian lobsters, of the clawless variety, and crabs are common and of excellent quality, and sea turtles are often found in the markets.

The only sea product exported in appreciable quantity from Haiti is tortoise shell, of which 2,805 pounds, valued at \$13,420, were exported in the fiscal year 1926-1927. This compares unfavorably with the 12,450,827 pounds of pickled and smoked fish, 3,971,497 pounds of salted and dried fish, and 46,543 pounds of canned fish imported during the same period, most of which could have been produced locally. The best fishing grounds are reputed to be in the Gulf of Gonaives, of the mouth of the Artibonite River. The ports of Gonaives and Saint Marc are nearby, where salt is produced by the evaporation of sea water, and are adaptable to the development of a fish drying and canning industry.

Sharks are also abundant, but are captured only incidentally. A considerable trade could be developed in their hides, liver, oil, fins and other valuable products.

#### Industries

Haiti has never been a manufacturing country. In the French colonial times, the home government prohibited in the colony all industrial enterprises other than rum distilleries, tanneries, and brick yards, and industries devoted to the preparation of agricultural products for shipment to France.

The great sugar mills, indigo plants, and lesser industries were completely destroyed during the revolutionary period, and from 1804 to 1915 no successful attempts were made to establish manufacturing enterprises. Since 1915 encouragement has been given to local manufacturing through the establishment of security, sound financing, tariff adjustments, determination of land titles, better sanitation, and improved transportation facilities.

The more important enterprises which have been established during the past twelve years include a large sugar factory and distillery at Port au Prince, a smaller one near Cape Haitien, a logwood extract plant at Grande Riviere, cotton ginning plants at Port au Prince and Saint Marc, a cigarette factory at Port au Prince, cottonseed oil and lard compound factories at Saint Marc and Port au Prince, and a brewery at Port au Prince.

With the exception of the plants mentioned above, which employ regularly only a few hundred

men in actual manufacturing operations, industrial operations are confined to brick yards, primitive saw mills, coffee, cacao and sisal-planting, a few small tanneries, tile works, small cigarette and cigar factories, the bottling of soft drinks, wood-working hat and shoe shops, candle making and tinsmithing.

It is obvious that for many years to come, Haiti must depend for revenue on the production of raw materials, practically all products of the soil. However, in a country so undeveloped as is Haiti, plans to promote economic development should include a careful study of every possible opportunity to create or encourage industries designed to prepare for home consumption such of the products of the country as are, or may be, in their manufactured state, consumed locally.

Haiti is essentially an agricultural country, the most important product being coffee. The average annual quantity of coffee exported during the past ten years is approximately 69,000,000 pounds, the value of which represents 69.5 per cent of all exports. The coffee is of excellent quality, and commands a high price in the markets of the world.

Sugar production undoubtedly offers one of the most practical roads to large industrial advance. What has been done in Cuba might with the same facility be accomplished in Haiti. The country possesses similar natural advantages of soil, climate, and rainfall. In addition, Haiti has what Cuba lacks, a plentiful supply of efficient cane workers, a fact proved by the emigration of Haitian laborers to Cuba to labor in the cane fields. Sugar development on the basis of Cuban example and experience—the present development is almost entirely that of the small plot—would serve to keep Haitian workers at home and thus prove a source of benefit to the country. To secure this result, stability of government and full protection of foreign investment are primary requisites. The outlook in this direction is bright.

Aside from coffee and sugar, Haiti's principal foreign shipments consist of cotton, cacao, dyewoods, goatskins, and honey. Production of sisal and pineapples on a large scale has been undertaken in recent years, and the prospects for the growth of these industries are encouraging. The cultivation of tobacco is extending. The growing of fruits and vegetables for local consumption and for foreign markets offers excellent possibilities. This potential industry is at present largely undeveloped. The fishing industry, in spite of the opportunities, is negligible. A few hundred fishermen with crude equipment are able to meet only a very small part of the local demand for fish. Haiti's importations of fish during the past ten years have averaged 8,194,242 pounds annually.

#### Highways

The highway system of Haiti consists of about 1500 kilometers of vehicular roads, and reaches almost all of the principal towns and centers of production of the Republic.

Many difficulties have had to be overcome in opening up these roads, such as the mountains which cover about three quarters of the area of

Haiti. Several of the mountain roads still have some steep grades and sharp turns, but the scenery from these mountain roads well repays the climb.

Another of the difficulties was the number of river crossings. This problem, of course, exists in every country, but here it is aggravated by the rapidity with which small streams become dangerous torrents during the frequent heavy rains, and by the necessity of bridging many crossings as quickly as possible with meagre funds. Excellent progress has been made, however; the present standard types being concrete slabs and steel trusses with concrete decks, and now very few rivers have to be forded on the main roads.

#### Automotive Statistics

The growth of automobile equipment in Haiti has kept pace with the island's progress. In 1927 a total of 2,033 vehicles was registered, of which number there were 1,121 privately owned passenger cars, 344 public cars, 123 official cars, 246 trucks and 48 dealers' cars. Traffic is well regulated through gardes specially trained for this service.

#### Railroads

There is a total railroad mileage of 182 miles, distributed as follows: Cape Haitien to Bahon, Port au Prince to Saint Marc and Verretes, Lake Saumatre through Port au Prince to Leogane. Contemplated plans will continue the road north from Saint Marc through the Artibonite Valley and the great Central Plain, connecting at Bahon with Cape Haitien, opening up rich agricultural lands, hardwood forests and cattle breeding lands. All of the roads are narrow gauge, ranging from 30 to 42 inches.

#### Coastwise Shipping

The Customs Law of September 4, 1905, permits the exclusion of foreign vessels from the transportation of coastwise cargo. In practice, however, such vessels are permitted to engage in coastwise trade provided adequate facilities are not offered by vessels of Haitian registry. At the present time, the most important shipments between the open ports of Haiti are by foreign steamers; but a large part of the coastwise shipping is carried on in small Haitian sailing craft.

### COMMERCE

#### Balance of Trade

The values of Haitian imports and exports for each fiscal year from 1916-1917 to 1926-1927 had a combined value of \$335,385,228.

Since coffee exports for the eleven-year period were over 72 per cent of total exports, it is evident that, in Haiti, a favorable balance of trade for any one year depends upon, and indicates, a profitable coffee crop for that particular year.

#### Commodities Imported

The values of imports, by commodities, for the fiscal years 1916-1917 to 1926-1927 was a yearly average of \$15,573,150.

Few manufacturing industries exist in Haiti. Aside from certain classes of foodstuffs, the material requirements of the population must be im-

ported. For this reason the values of imports are closely related to those of exports, and the character of the commodities which show increased importation throws interesting light on the improving standard of living of the people.

A sharp decline in tobacco imports occurred during the fiscal year 1926-1927. Tobacco is one of the staple crops of Jamaica, Cuba, Porto Rico and the Dominican Republic. Since Haitian conditions closely approximate those of the neighboring islands, it was considered expedient, in preparing the tariff law of July 26, 1926, to offer an incentive to tobacco culture in Haiti by increasing the duties on this product to such an extent that its importation would be practically prohibitive. As a result of this action on the part of the Government, hundreds of acres in Haiti have been planted to this crop.

#### Origin of Imports

The values of imports, in percentages, by countries of origin, for the fiscal years 1916-1917 to 1926-1927, show that the United States led with an average through the eleven-year period of 82.62 per cent. The United Kingdom with 6.43, Germany with 5.48, and France with 5.47 followed. Haitian imports are largely confined to foodstuffs, construction materials, and the cheaper form of textiles.

#### Commodities Exported

The values of exports, by commodities, for the fiscal years 1916-1917 to 1926-1927, averaged during the eleven-year period \$14,916,415.

The five chief exports of Haiti, in order of importance, are coffee, raw cotton, sugar, logwood and cacao.

It is the policy of the Government to increase production for export in order to make possible the larger importation of commodities necessary for the welfare of the people. It is also desired, while maintaining and improving the cultivation and marketing of coffee, to encourage the production of other exportable crops, thus diversifying Haitian products, stabilizing the agricultural system and, by lessening its seasonal character, giving greater security and income to the agricultural and laboring classes.

#### Destination of Exports

The value of exports, in percentages, by countries of destination, for the fiscal years 1916-1917 to 1926-1927, point to France as leading throughout the eleven-year period with 48.99 per cent. The United States, Germany and the United Kingdom follow.

Since most of the coffee, the principal crop, is exported to France, almost half of Haiti's income during this eleven-year period was derived from France. In the last fiscal year, however, France absorbed only 47.51 per cent as compared to 65.13 per cent during the previous year. This indicates that Haitian coffee, which has for so many years enjoyed an excellent reputation in France, is finding favor in other markets.

#### Revenue

For the greater part of its revenues, the Haitian Government has always depended on customs



duties. In 1914-15 receipts were \$3,145,160, of which internal revenue produced \$70,706, or 2.25 per cent, and customs \$3,074,453, or 97.75 per cent of total receipts. Since that time internal revenues have more or less steadily increased. During the last fiscal year, 1926-1927, they amounted to \$830,657, or 10.69 per cent of receipts while customs receipts amount to \$6,723,375, and miscellaneous receipts \$209,274, a total for the year of \$7,772,107.

Receipts for the first five months of the fiscal year 1927-28 amounted to \$4,986,520. This is \$217,215 more than was collected during the same period in 1925-26, the record revenue year in Haitian history. With continued security and increasing production, the revenues of the Haitian Government, except for temporary fluctuations due to crop and trade conditions, should steadily increase.

#### Surplus

On February 29, 1928, the government had an unobligated cash surplus of \$2,704,813. When the United States intervened there was an empty treasury and an accumulation of unsettled claims, a condition which had been characteristic of the Haitian treasury for many years. The unobligated cash surplus of the Haitian Government has no fictitious quality. There are no outstanding unpaid claims of merit, except current claims, for payment of which there is an ample budgetary provision. It is this unobligated surplus that permits the Haitian treasury to obtain such substantial sums from miscellaneous receipts. The present surplus is the greatest in Haitian history.

#### OCEAN SHIPPING AND PORTS

Haiti is well served by ocean shipping. Several lines operate between New York and its principal ports, and to and from European and West Indian ports, touching at various Haitian ports.

Haiti's principal port of entry, Port au Prince, 1,372 miles and five days' steaming from New York, has a harbor of great natural beauty that is entirely free from hurricanes or strong gales. The other important ports are Cape Haitien, Port de Paix, Gonaives, St. Marc, Petit Goave, Miragoane, Jeremie, Cayes and Jacmel.

#### COMMUNICATIONS

##### Telephone — Telegraph

The telephone-teletype system of Haiti was owned and operated by the State until early in 1930. This system has offices in all of the principal cities and towns of the Republic, which handle telegrams, long-distance telephone traffic, international cablegrams, and radiograms to and from ships at sea. At all of the more important towns local telephone service is also available. Since 1922 Port au Prince has had a modern automatic telephone system which has had, and is at the present time experiencing, a rapid growth. At Cape Haitien also, the local telephone service is automatic. There are 19 other local telephone services that are manually operated.

##### Postal Service

Haiti has been a member of the International Postal Union since 1881. A daily schedule of mail deliveries is in operation between Port au Prince and

the less distant towns. To communities farther removed deliveries are made three times per week, and to the most distant cities and towns twice per week. Mail is still carried on the backs of mules over the trails to the remote villages. Twice per week, in addition to the other deliveries, mail is carried by airplane between Port au Prince, Cape Haitien, Port de Paix, Gonaives, Hinche, Jeremie and the island of Gonave.

The exchange of mail with foreign countries is maintained by several steamship companies which serve Haiti regularly.

#### EDUCATION

It is estimated that there are approximately half a million children of school age in Haiti. Approximately 15 per cent of this number is enrolled in schools of one type or another. The educational system includes primary schools, secondary schools, and colleges. Except in certain elementary classes co-education does not exist. Among the schools are to be found both private and national schools, and presbyterial schools partially supported from national funds. Of the total number of 1,000 schools 40 per cent, or 400, are rural schools. There are 20 national and private secondary schools, 12 for boys and 8 for girls.

Since the organization of a technical department under the treaty, farm schools and industrial schools have been organized in the various parts of the island, and a college of agriculture and industrial arts established near the capital. This college enrolls approximately 200 students, and is training teachers for the farm schools and industrial schools, agricultural agents, research workers, veterinarians, and college staff members. An experiment station is conducted in connection with this college. Students are given practice in farming operations and in shop work as a part of their training for the positions they will occupy later as teachers.

Fifty elementary farm schools have been established since 1924 and 25 more are being organized. These schools are all located in the rural districts and are training boys to work more efficiently on the farms. Approximately 5,000 boys are enrolled in these schools. The school buildings are permanent masonry structures. Shops are built in connection with all of them and emphasis is placed upon hand work.

Eight industrial schools have been established, two for girls and six for boys. The enrollment in these schools is at present more than 1,600. Night schools have been organized recently in some of the industrial and farm schools. These schools have proved to be very popular and several hundred young men and women who are employed during the day are following these courses. Industrial education in particular and vocational education in general are becoming more popular among the Haitians. The industrial educational system includes professional instruction designed to produce trained workers and technicians.

#### SANITATION

From the date of the signing of the Convention between the Government of the United States and Haiti, the scope of the work in sanitation as a whole was looked upon as almost unlimited and comprised the progress of sanitation among people living under the most primitive

conditions, toward the ideal condition of living, in the best sanitated countries of our time. It was realized that the rate of this progress would depend on, or be determined by, the availability of funds for sanitation and for education of coming generations. It can be stated with great satisfaction that the progress has exceeded the dreams of the most optimistic. From the standpoint of cleanliness of streets, gutters, markets and abattoirs, the largest cities and towns now compare favorably with those in any well sanitated country.

Each district has a well equipped hospital, in charge of a U. S. Naval Medical Officer, assisted by a Public Health Officer, Haitian physicians, graduate Haitian nurses and Catholic Sisters.

### Hospitals

The 300 bed Haitian General Hospital at Port au Prince, and the 200 bed Justinian Hospital at Cape Haitian are equipped with all the essentials of modern medicine, surgery, and the specialties. They would be a credit to any city of similar size and far greater economic development anywhere in the world.

### Rural Clinics

Today one hundred and twelve rural clinics are operating throughout the country. Depending on their accessibility and the local density of population they are held weekly, bi-weekly, or monthly. Through this widespread clinic movement, treatment and the "gospel of Public Health" are being carried actually to the very doors of homes heretofore totally without the faintest idea of modern medicine. Yaws, malaria and intestinal parasites are the three great scourges against which the rural clinic has been so successful.

### Medical Education

Medical education is receiving special attention as instanced by the erection of a new Medical School building in 1927, and its affiliation with the Haitian General Hospital (300 beds) at Port au Prince. With the aid of the Rockefeller Foundation seven Haitian physicians are now engaged in post-graduate studies in some of the leading clinics of France, Canada and the United States.

### Trained Nurses

With the aid of the U. S. Navy Nurse Corps, a training school for nurses was established at the Haitian General Hospital in 1918. Taken over in 1920 by the American Red Cross Nurses, this school has been conducted very successfully. The total number of graduates is eighty. Forty-three are employed in hospitals of the Public Health Service. The establishment of the Public Health Nurse movement in Haiti is shortly to be accomplished.

### ORDER AND STABILITY

Through the organization of the Garde d'Haiti into five Departments, further subdivided into 20 Districts and 33 Sub-Districts, and with outposts radiating from the Sub-Districts, this force is spread like a net throughout the Republic. As a result there is not a city or village of any consequence where there is not a detachment of gendarmes available for the suppression of disorder, protection of citizens against exploitation, and aiding in the enforcement of proper sanitation.

Through its intelligence system the Garde d'Haiti maintains efficient surveillance of all persons of poten-

tial danger to security and order. Certain telephone lines are under the control of the Garde d'Haiti, making communication possible to the more isolated sections; and its construction and maintenance of trails in such sections has further contributed to the interests of the peasant population. The most isolated sections of the island are patrolled by the Police Rurale, working in cooperation with the Garde d'Haiti.

### PASSPORT REQUIREMENTS

Passports are not required for entering or leaving Haiti, with the exception of emigrant Haitian laborers. Each arriving and departing passenger, however, is subject to a passage ticket tax of Gdes. 10.00 (\$2.00). Persons departing for foreign countries where passports are required may obtain passports from the Minister of the Interior, at a cost of Gdes. 15.20 (\$3.04). This fee covers the passport form and a form of declaration which must be presented at the time application is made. Two photographs are required with the application.

The metric system is by law of August 4, 1920, the standard for weights and measures in Haiti. Before that date, French units of pre-Napoleonic days were legal. The most important of the former units with their metric equivalents, follows:

French pound.....	489 grams
" gallon.....	3.75 liters
" foot.....	0.3248 meter
" inch.....	0.02707
" aune.....	1.188 meter
" carreau.....	1.29 hectare

Haiti offers to the resident or visitor a wide range of outdoor recreation, for the climate permits its enjoyment throughout the year.

Horseback riding, tennis, salt-water bathing and mountain climbing have long been favorite diversions. Yachting and motorboating have forged ahead at Port au Prince, and the conditions for both these forms of nautical sport are ideal. At Port au Prince the Golf Club has a good nine-hole course capable of expansion to eighteen holes, and regularly scheduled golf tournaments, baseball series and polo tournaments are held through the greater part of the year.

The lakes and ponds offer excellent sport in wild duck and many well known varieties of shore birds. Shark and alligator hunting can be had. Wild guinea, pigeon and doves are common to the greater part of the island, and are easily accessible.

Deep-sea fishing is steadily growing in favor. One of the best known fishing grounds is that of La Gonave Island, thirty miles west of Port au Prince. Barracuda, Spanish mackerel, kingfish, red snappers and other tropical game fish are plentiful in this locality. Fishermen will be especially interested in the discovery of a breeding ground for tarpon on the coast, within four miles of Port au Prince, by the Beebe Expedition of 1927, which was made in the interests of the Department of Tropical Research of the New York Zoological Society.

While Haiti is handicapped by the lack of modern hotels, this situation shows signs of improvement. There are several small hotels and pensions at Port au Prince and at other points, where reasonable accommodations may be had. Their average rates, including rooms and meals are \$3.00 per day per person.

The unit of currency is the gourde, which has the value of twenty cents gold.



## Signaling in the Corps

The late Major General Commandant, Wendell Cushing Neville, once told a story of an American Marine who volunteered to make a signal during the Spanish War at Guantanamo, Cuba while exposed to the enemy fire.

"John Quick was a Sergeant in my Company," said General Neville. "A force of Marines was despatched to dislodge the Spaniards at Cuzco, a few miles from Guantanamo on the coast. My company, including Sergeant Quick, went along. A wild little fight resulted, during which it became necessary to signal to the gunboat *Dolphin* to shell the Spaniards. It was a blazing bitter hot day on top of the ridge with its shriveled chaparral and its straight tall cactus plants. The sky was bare and blue and hurt like brass. The Marines were red and sweating like so many hull-buried stokers in the tropics. A signal-man was called for to communicate with the *Dolphin*. John Quick was laying on his stomach near me, pumping his Lee rifle at the Spaniards. He said, 'I can do it.' I told him to try. He tied a large blue flag which he obtained from the Cubans to a long crooked stick and started wig-wagging. He tried for 20 minutes to get the signal to the *Dolphin* but that ship was unable to read his message against the background. So Quick had to place himself on the top of the ridge and outline himself and his flag against the sky. As soon as the concealed Spaniards caught sight of the silhouette they let go like mad at him. To make things more comfortable for Quick the situation demanded that he face the sea and turn his back to the Spanish bullets. A hard game, mark you—to stand with the small of your back to that leaden hail. We gazed at him, marvelling every second that he had not yet pitched headlong. As I looked at John Quick wig-wagging there against the sky, I would not have given a tin tobacco-tag for his life. Escape for him seemed hopeless, yet Quick signalled on as if he were on the parade ground instead of standing exposed to those Spanish bullets that drifted by him or spurted up the dust near his feet. Each bullet sought his life but John Quick's message reached the *Dolphin* and when he dropped down beside me I felt as if he had returned from the grave. He was awarded the Medal of Honor for that wonderful act of courage."

That story describes one of the many instances where Marines during battle operations have taken care of themselves via the signal-route.

During this same Spanish War Captain Littleton W. T. Waller commanding the Marines of the *Indiana* at the Battle of Santiago reported that his junior officer "First Lieutenant William C. Dawson is stationed on the bridge with the commanding officer, acting as signal officer." Most of Marine officers, who have served at sea, have at one time or another acted as Signal Officer for their ship.

When Major-General Commandant Ben H. Fuller commanded the Marines of the *Atlanta* on March 19, 1895, at Colon, Colombia (Panama) the Log of the ship carried this note: "Exercised Marine Guard in Signals."

Some day when you are in Washington and have the time drop in at the Navy library and ask to see "Coston's Telegraphic Night Signals" a book describing these signals which were invented by Benjamin Franklin Coston, the father of Captain H. H. Coston of the Marines who retired June 14, 1892, and died November 6, 1896. Captain Coston carried on the good work in signals started by

his father. A board composed of Captain C. S. McCauley, Commander John Rodgers and Lieutenant Henry H. Lewis, reported to the Secretary of the Navy Isaac Toucey in February, 1859, that "the Coston Signals are better than any others known to them," and they were adopted for use of the U. S. Navy. Captain Coston was the grandfather of Mrs. Norris, wife of Major Norris of the Marines.

Back in the spring of 1914 when the Marine Corps not only studied advanced base operations but possessed an Advanced Base Brigade, signals and communications were not overlooked.

On March 1, 1914, the designation of Company E, First Regiment was changed to the Third Company, First Regiment, Advanced Base Brigade; Captain James J. Meade, commanding company.

The Third Company (Signal Company), as a part of the First Regiment, First Advanced Base Brigade, commanded by Captain Meade, participated in the occupation of Vera Cruz from April 22 to November 22, 1914, and arrived back in Philadelphia on December 4, 1914.

The Third Company was detached from the First Regiment on February 1, 1915, and then became known as the Third (Signal) Company, First Brigade. At this time Captain Richard B. Creecy, U.S.M.C., was in command of the company.

Embarking on the U.S.S. *Tennessee* at Philadelphia

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QUIET AS A CAMP IN THE WOODS

on August 10, 1915, the Company landed at Port au Prince, Haiti, on August 16, 1915. After about two years' duty in Haiti the Company arrived back in Philadelphia where in May of 1917, under Captain Allen E. Simon, it joined the First Regiment. Captain James J. Meade assumed command of the Company on July 18, 1917.

The Third Company became a part of the Signal Battalion, stationed at the Philadelphia barracks, in June, 1918; the Eighty-seventh Company and the One hundred and forty-seventh Company were also units of the Signal Battalion.

The Signal Battalion moved from the Philadelphia barracks to Marine Camp, Camp Edward C. Fuller, Paoli, Pa., on June 22, 1918, Major J. J. Meade in command.

The Eighty-seventh Company was disbanded at Philadelphia on July 1, 1919. In September, 1919, the Third Company joined the First Regiment at Philadelphia.

On October 18, 1920, the Third Company (Signal) was transferred to Quantico from Philadelphia with the First Regiment.

On May 4, 1921, the Signal Battalion was organized at Marine barracks, Quantico, Va., under Captain William Merrill, and on this date it was composed of the Third and Eighty-seventh Companies.

Nine enlisted Marines from the Signal Battalion, Quantico, under the command of First Lieutenant Thomas M. Schuler, were ordered to Memphis, Tennessee, on May 1, 1927, as part of a combined Navy-Marine Corps communications detail to assist in radio communication in the flooded area of the Mississippi Valley. The navy personnel consisted of 20 radio operators and two officers from the battle fleet.

The Signal Battalion is at present composed of the Third Company, Eighty-seventh Company, and Headquarters Detachment with Major W. G. Hawthorne in command.

## "Tell It to the Marines"

*By the Historian*

Many weary hours have been unsuccessfully devoted to the search of Pepy's Diary in an effort to ascertain the "flying fish" source of "Tell it to the Marines," that was published in the *Marine Corps Gazette* of December, 1918. But those hours were futile for it is not in Pepy's Diary as will be illustrated in the following space.

On August 16, 1930, Brigadier General George Richards wrote to Colonel R. Foster of the Royal Marines stating that while the origin of "Tell it to the Marines" was accredited to Mr. Samuel Pepy's Diary he had never been able to find the story in any of Pepy's writings.

*Colonel Foster's Reply*

Colonel R. Foster replied to General Richards from the Royal Marine Barracks, Chatham, as follows:

How very kind of you to write me, but alas, I have made inquiries to substantiate the yarn of "Tell It To the Marines," and from no less a person than Colonel Drury of our Corps. You will read his letter, which I enclose, with some disappointment but at the same time with a merry twinkle in those bright eyes of yours. Those of our officers who have read the "Petrified Eye," and there is hardly one who has not, were of the same opinion as you

that the explanation of "Tell It To the Marines," though in a book of fiction, was officially correct.

You will see that I am now at Chatham and in command of the R. Marines here, a pleasant change after London. Galbraith, your Naval Attache, came and looked us up two days ago; very nice of him. I am so glad that you enjoyed yourself when over here and that England produced a good share of the fun for you. We, of the Royal Marines, did so greatly appreciate your great kindness in laying such a beautiful wreath on our memorial and also for your hospitality. All we can say is that we hope that your first trip will not be your last one. Remember me very kindly to Commander Sousa and Captain Platt and accept from my wife and self our very kindest regards. Please do not bother to return "Drury's" letter. With all good wishes, and may it not be long before we renew one another's acquaintance.

### *Colonel Drury's Explanation*

Colonel W. P. Drury wrote Colonel Foster from Killigrew Cottage, Saltash, Cornwall, as follows:

The letter from Big. Gen. Richards, of the U. S. A. Marines, has given me much amusement and not a little remorse. The story "Tell It To the Marines" which he quotes so seriously is taken from the preface to my earliest literary crime "The Petrified Eye," and is a leg-pull of my youth of which I have grown a little ashamed. I seemed to have forged the style of Samuel Pepy's so successfully that many besides our distinguished American comrade have wasted time in hunting through the diary to verify my statement. For it simply does not exist, being no more than a fabrication of my own mischievous brain. At the same time I venture to think my explanation of the obnoxious phrase will serve as well as any other.

### *Known to American Navy For Centuries*

"Tell it to the Marines" has been current in the United States Navy for centuries.

E. C. Wines in his "Two Years and a Half in the Navy," wrote from the *Constellation* in 1829 that:

"A *Marine* is a sort of ambidextrous animal—half horse, half alligator. His duties alternate between those of a *sailor* and a *soldier*. He is a being for whom the genuine *tar* entertains very little respect, and on the other hand, his contempt is repaid, if not with interest, at least without abating a solitary farthing of the principal. When a *sailor* hears a fish story, his only answer almost always is, 'Tell That To a Marine!'"

## The First Paymaster

*By The Historian*

If it came to a plebiscite to select what Marine could best be done away with the fellow that pays us the money would certainly not head the list.

Although the Act of July 11, 1798, that brought into being the Corps as it exists today, authorized Major-Commandant William Ward Burrows to appoint an Adjutant, a paymaster, and a Quartermaster to serve on his staff ashore, it was not until April, 1799, that James Thompson was appointed to act as paymaster of the Marine Corps.

For nine months Major Burrows got along with an



Adjutant and between them they handled all staff matters.

Just how the financial affairs were handled in those early days is well illustrated by the figures on the inside covers and a few pages of a letter book that is now safely located in the archives of the Marine Corps in the Historical section. No doubt this book was merely a rough day book, but an examination of it gives ample evidence of Major Burrows' troubles.

At any rate, Major Burrows decided that some sort of a fiscal system should be inaugurated for the Marine Corps. The Corps was carrying on splendidly in the war that was going on with France. Every vessel, including the revenue cutters and galleys, carried Marine guards; prisoners of war needed safe guarding; recruiting was urgent; magazines, Navy stores and frigates under construction required guarding; some of the forts called for garrisons; Federal prisoners (not French) needed sentries, and innumerable other calls were made for Marines to perform special duty. The Marine Corps was growing in value and importance and Major Burrows could not administer the financial affairs any longer from his "pocket."

So he asked to have a specially qualified man appointed to act as paymaster. The enormous general growth of the Corps from 1799 to 1930 probably is best shown by the fact that the first paymaster was Second Lieutenant James Thompson, while in 1922 he is Brigadier-General George Richards.

The following letter, dated April 17, 1799, was sent from the Navy Department to "Mr. James Thompson, Geo-Town, Potomack":

"The President has appointed you a Second Lieutenant in the Corps of Marines. If you accept, it is intended that you shall act as paymaster to that Corps. You will, of course, be stationed at the seat of government, wherever that may be.

"I hope you will repair to Philadelphia without delay.

"Pay as Second Lieutenant of Marines—\$25 per month and (2) rations per day, as paymaster the same addition as in the Army."

The seat of government at this time was at Philadelphia. It moved to Washington in 1800. Lieutenant Thompson succeeded in always maintaining his station at the "Seat of Government", as has every other paymaster since him.

## Why We Are Called "Leathernecks"

By The Historian

Black leather stocks were supplied as part of their uniform to the Marines of 1798. And the officers wore these stocks, too. For instance an order dated March 25, 1804, directed Marine officers to wear "black leather stocks when on duty." The fame of the leather stocks lives today in the good-natured sobriquet of "Leathernecks."

The hair was queued and powdered. In April, 1804, a piece of black leather was put in the rear of all hats, "sewn below the gourd", or brim, "to avoid the powder" of the queue. That may have also strengthened the inspiration to call the Marines by the name of Leathernecks, but it is believed that the "black leather stock" was the real cause.

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## The Marine Corps Chevron

Chevrons worn by the non-commissioned officers of the Marine Corps have always pointed upward.

The non-commissioned officers of the Marine during the American Revolution were distinguished by the wearing of epaulettes, or other marks. A search of the available records does not disclose any information that accurately describe these epaulettes and other distinguishing marks of rank. A General Order, signed by George Washington, at Cambridge, Mass., in July, 1775, states that "as the Continental Army have unfortunately no uniforms, and consequently many inconveniences must arise from not being able to distinguish the commissioned officers from the non-commissioned, and the non-commissioned from the privates, it is desired that some badges of distinction may be immediately provided." This General Order then provided that "the sergeants may be distinguished by an epaulette or stripe of red cloth sewed upon their right shoulders; the corporals by one of green."

An "order describing the uniform of the Marine Corps more particularly than it has heretofore been described," signed by Secretary of the Navy Smith, on October 14, 1805, provided that sergeants would wear "leather cockades on the left side of the hat, with their plumes." These were "high crowned hats, without a brim and a plume of red plush on the front of the hat, with a brass eagle and plate and bat band of blue, yellow and red cord with a tassel of the same colours." On July 7, 1806, the Secretary directed that "yellow bands and tassels," instead of those above ordered would "in future be worn by the non-commissioned officers, musicians and privates of the Marine Corps."

The order which first directed the non-commissioned officers of the Marine Corps to wear anything similar to the present-day chevrons was the one approved by the President on April 3, 1833, and which went into effect on July 4, 1834. This order provided that "sergeants, when in fatigue dress will be designated by wearing two small stripes of worsted lace on each arm below the elbow, placed diagonally on the upper side of the arm from one seam to the other, the outer points inclining towards the elbow," while "corporals will wear one stripe on each arm in the manner designated for sergeants." These probably resembled the service stripes worn today. The Uniform Regulations of July 1, 1839, contains this same provision, except that the words "plain stripes" were used instead of "small stripes."

Although the above-mentioned Uniform Regulations of 1839 prescribed the plain stripes as designating marks for non-commissioned officers of the Marine Corps, Colonel Commandant Archibald Henderson signed the following order about three years before, on March 23, 1836:

"In future the ranks of non-commissioned officers of the Corps, when in fatigue dress will be designated by chevrons in lieu of the plain worsted stripe prescribed in orders of the 10th of April, 1833:

"The Non-commissioned staff of the Corps will wear on each arm, above the elbow, two angles of tinsel lace, pointing upwards, thus:——. The sergeants will wear on each arm above the elbow, and the corporals on each arm below the elbow, one angle of worsted lace similar

to those prescribed for the non-commissioned staff of the Corps.

"Lance corporals will be designated by wearing one plain stripe of worsted lace on each arm below the elbow, placed diagonally on the upper side of the arm from one seam to the other, the outer points inclining towards the elbow."

The above order is the first information so far discovered in the records referring to "chevrons" for the Marines; but as has been related the orders issued in 1839 directs the wearing of "plain stripes."

An interesting bit of information about the chevrons is found in the following communication dated February 23, 1852, addressed by 12 sergeants to Brigadier General Commandant Henderson.

"We, the undersigned non-commissioned officers of the Corps, now at headquarters, would most respectfully solicit your permission to wear the chevron designating their rank, above their elbows as described in the Army Regulations. Our reasons for asking this is: First, our partiality to the pattern above the elbow; second, the inconvenience and expense of shifting them whenever we leave this station as they are worn differently on almost every station except headquarters, and when we are at sea it is also expected that we should wear them as prescribed by the Army Regulations. This will insure uniformity in the wearing of the stripe on all the stations and prevent the possibility of our being designated as corporal, which has frequently been the case heretofore."

Brevet Captain Robert Tansil, Brevet First Lieutenant Charles A. Henderson and Second Lieutenant Israel Green, on February 27, 1852, approved this request in sending it on to the Commandant in these words:

"We have considered the application of the sergeants of this post to wear the chevrons above the elbow, and respectfully recommend that their request be granted."

The Uniform Regulations of October, 1859, provide that "chevrons shall be worn on the uniform coat above the elbow, *points up*, of yellow silk lace one-half inch wide." The regulations of May, 1875, provide that the chevrons "shall be worn on the sleeve above the elbows, *points up*, of yellow silk lace one-half inch wide," and that "the scarlet edgings of all chevrons shall be one-eighth of an inch wide." The Uniform Regulations of July 14, 1892, seem to omit all reference to the chevron, while those of 1900 direct that the chevrons will be "of yellow silk lace, one-half inch wide, edged with scarlet cloth one-eighth of an inch wide, to be worn on the sleeve above the elbows, *points up*."

The changes of uniform have of necessity carried with them changes in size and material of chevrons, but with all the variations that have taken place the chevrons of the Marines have always pointed up.

A brief review of the chevrons authorized for the Army show this has not been the case. An illustration in the official Army Uniform Regulations showing the uniform of the infantry for the period 1783-1796, presents an enlisted man wearing two white striped chevrons, *points up*, on left arm above the elbow. The regulations



of 1821 direct the angle of the chevron to point upwards. Sergeant majors and quartermaster sergeants were authorized to wear "one chevron of worsted braid on each arm, below the elbow; sergeants and senior musicians, one on each arm below the elbow; and corporals one on the right arm above the elbow." The regulations of 1825, directed that sergeants wear the chevrons above the elbows

and the corporals to wear them below the elbows, all pointing upward. In 1832 the orders provided that the chevrons would be worn above the elbow with "points towards the cuffs." In 1836 the same directions were issued, similarly in 1839, and in all regulations until quite recently when the chevrons were ordered to be reversed and are now worn in a manner similar to the Marines.

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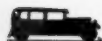


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WHILE the above drawings show an interesting comparison in speed, they also form a striking example of the limitations imposed by time. The sprinter is not always in form to run his best, nor is it necessary that he equal his best record, as he races against a competitor. The duck does not always fly at the rate shown above, but changes its speed depending upon the danger to which it is exposed. The automobile is capable of far greater speed than that regulated by traffic laws, but the driver must exercise control to obey traffic signals. The aeroplane may attempt to maintain a constant cruising speed but this speed is necessarily varied when it climbs over mountains or descends to a landing field. The shotgun shooter, however, wants his box of shells to be uniform so that each shot load will travel to its target at the same invariable speed.

The automobile driver does not attempt to reach his destination by traveling at a fixed speed. He would have no use for an engine which was not provided with a throttle that would enable him to slow down in traffic and speed up on the open road. He may vary the speed at which he is traveling by as much as 50 per cent and still be sure of arriving at his destination. On the other hand, a charge of shot

travels so fast that the shooter is unable to see it in the air, consequently he has to depend blindly upon his experience and the uniformity of the ammunition when leading a flying target. He is not at all interested, therefore, in actual time intervals or the rate of speed of his ammunition. A mathematical analysis will show why the shooter is so dependent upon uniformity.

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